



Antecedents of brand tribalism and its influence on purchase intention in the luxury housing market

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DECLARATION

I, Nthabiseng Mokoena, declare the following with regards to my study:

- The work presented in this study is my own.
- All sources that were used in this study were highlighted and recognised.
- This paper has never before been submitted for any other qualification at any teaching establishment.

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19 June 2017

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I humble myself to God almighty for all his grace and love. None of this would have been possible without him – I’m a living testament of “waiting on the Lord”.

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of the study was to determine the antecedents of brand tribalism and its influence on purchase intention in the luxury housing market. A research conceptual model was developed to assess the potential relations between luxury brand preference, corporate philanthropy, social identity, brand fetish, brand tribalism and luxury brand purchase intention. The research objectives and proposed hypothesis were also based on the above-mentioned variables. The study adopted the positivist approach whereby it was quantitative in nature. Research data was collected from 267 willing participants from the Gauteng province in various industries. Their selection for the study was based on convenience sampling. In order to analyse the data the structural equation modelling approach was utilised in which SPSS 24 and AMOS 24 were used. Numerous findings were observed from five hypotheses that were developed for the purposes of the study. The proposed hypotheses were found to be supported and significant except for one. The relationships not significant were those of social identity and brand tribalism. This was also the weakest relationship and suggested that to identify socially; one did not need to be part of a brand tribe. Lastly, recommendations for marketing practitioners, housing market government officials and academicians were provided in the study.

Key words: Social identity, brand tribalism, luxury brands, brand fetish

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CHAPTER 1: OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

In years gone by, brands have by no means been so notorious or hold greater influence as they do currently. The Economist magazine (2002) echoes this sentiment by saying in recorded history; it has never happened that within a short period of time, individuals move to being full-blown consumer societies leading to consumer nations. From this, an objective observation was that brand followers have greater control on the significance and relevance of a brand than the brand custodians themselves and this is based on the current need of customers.

The acquisition of certain brands now automatically places the purchaser in a social community or level of classification, whether intentionally planned or not. These classifications now have different terms that are socially “accepted” and easily identifiable. Examples of such intentional or unintentional social communities are: the Harley-Davidson motorcycle owners who become affiliated to a group called the “HOG” – Harley Owner Group; the avid followers of Oprah Winfrey who are referred to as “OWNers” upon being registered under her customer base; the obsessive global followers of the singer and performer Beyoncé who are referred to as the “Beyhive”, as well as the singer Rihanna, whose fans are called “RihannaNavy”.

With the above “trend” identifier, it is important to discuss the economy of South Africa as well as where it all began for purposes of showcasing increasing and developing economic and marketing activity brought about by the above assertions. The country has been a democratic country for the past twenty-one years and, to date, it has accomplished some commendable objectives that are to the developmental benefit of the current population and the one to come. For purposes of this research study, a statistical observation was conducted through the consideration of Statistics South Africa’s 2015 estimated report. The report yielded that the country has a total population of 54.96 million, where 51% of this total number are females.

A further breakdown of the total population figure was that 24% a greater percentage of the total sum resided in Gauteng, followed by 19.9% KwaZulu-Natal residents and 2.2% from the Northern Cape. The remainder of the percentage was distributed amongst the smaller provinces, which were not be touched on for purposes of the intended focal point to be elaborated on in the second chapter of the study. A supplement to the above breakdown was that of gender and demographics in the Gauteng province. The distribution was as follows:

25 – 29-year-olds consisted of a total of 1 239 852 million males and females. When simplified, there were 628 458 males and 611 394 females;

30 – 34-year-olds were a total of 1 124 029 million and when cut down, there were 552 519 males and 571 510 females;

35 – 39, there was a total of 1 126 409 million people, which was made up of 576 510 males and 549 899 females; and

40 – 44, the sum of this group was 1 003 375, divided into 529 694 males and 473 681 females (Stats SA, 2015).

As of March (2016), FocusEconomics reported a South African economic growth of 1.3%, with the consumption growth sitting at 1.6%. Statistics South Africa (2015) further added onto this economic report by stipulating that the total turnover in the private sector (greatest focus of the study) increased by 3.3% in the September (2015) quarter, compared with the June (2015) quarter, rising from an estimated R1.97 trillion to R2.04 trillion. This was the highest quarter-on-quarter percentage increase since the September (2014) quarter. However, quarterly changes were heavily influenced by seasonal factors that could affect the interpretation of data and distort analysis of turnover ratios.

With these statistics being evidence of the South African consumption patterns, another crucial figure was that of the luxury housing market, where a total of only 2% of the 54 million South Africans were able to purchase what was referred to as a “luxury” house. This then led the researcher to explore the market (middle – upper) that had access to these homes as well as the institutions (banks) that lent a hand in this acquisition process.

The discussion of habitation and tribes in South Africa dates back to the early years of the then undemocratic, non-constitutionally governed and colonised country. Its inhabitants still maintained a level of communal living and tribes in order to be protected and satisfy the basic needs to survive. In today's South Africa that is a different case, says Burgess (2002) – the formation of a tribe in the new South Africa is illustrated through one's first encounter with an individual. This is done in a way where, when an unknown gets into the same space as another, each individual is scanned for a certain meaning, for example, the hairstyle, scent, what they do, where they live, how they look, what brand they are wearing, what are the common or shared characteristics – from attaining this information, one is then able to decide how they are going to interact with that person once the opportunity arises (Burgess, 2002). Identity can now be “observed in social categories people construct in everyday conversations”. Social categories of people come into play when based on similarities such as education, wealth, religion, gender, neighbourhood and religion, amongst other things (Burgess, 2002).

With the above assertion considered, there are five (5) big financial providers in the country, mostly referred to as the “big five”, known as ABSA, Standard Bank, FNB, Nedbank and Investec, who provide resources that enable and perpetuate non-traditional “tribal” classifications. Each of these service providers have an objective of increasing their customer base through offering innovative value-added services such as rewards systems, competitive account holder fees, efficient service provision, and self-service mechanisms for convenience; but, more importantly, the provision of social status obtained through the customer segmentation process driven by earnings, educational background, lifestyle and net worth – similar to that of Burgess' modern tribal description. From this shift, the South African consumer has witnessed and experienced the change brought about by the influence and benefit of being a certain account holder under any of the service providers mentioned above.

The introductory discussion above was a foundation that touched on the principles of the main factors that would be of importance in the investigation that took place. It touched on the active economic participation within the country as well as the gender distribution, which was helpful during the process of collecting data as well as the trend analysis on Gauteng resident lifestyle. For the purposes of this study, the researcher focused on the South African middle-class

consumer who was an active participant in the country's economy as per the statistical indication above. Further focus was on how being part of a group that followed a luxury brand could influence one's purchase intentions.

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

South Africa is a rapidly developing economy, thus it has become known for its increased consumer product and services consumption on a local and global scale. There are a lot of studies that have been conducted on brand loyalty, brand love, brand trust and brand relationship – from that, a deduction was that very few have considered the study on the influence that brand tribalism has had on the purchase intention of luxury housing amongst the middle-class Gauteng metropolitan residents in South Africa.

That being said, the purpose of this study was to determine the relationship between the antecedents of brand tribalism, that being corporate philanthropy, social identity and brand fetish, as well as the influence brand tribalism has on purchase intention. With this, beneficial outcomes for all practicing brand marketers would be available, thus enhancing the marketing field within South Africa.

1.3 SUB-PROBLEM

- To determine which of the antecedents has the strongest impact on brand tribalism.
- To determine the influence of brand tribalism on purchase intention.

1.4 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this research was to investigate the relation between brand tribalism and corporate philanthropy, social identity as well as brand fetish. Further to that, the study was to investigate the influence brand tribalism has on purchase intentions within middle-class Gauteng metropolitan dwellers in South Africa.

1.5 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The aim of this study was to examine and prove how being part of a brand tribe, along with its dependent variables, could ultimately result in an individual preferring that specific product or service, thus leading to intentions of purchasing a home in the luxury brand market.

1.6 THEORETICAL OBJECTIVES

The following theoretical objectives were identified for the purposes of the study:

- To review literature on brand tribalism;
- To review literature on corporate philanthropy;
- To review literature on social identity;
- To review literature on brand fetish; and
- To review literature on brand tribalism being an influence on purchase intention.

1.7 EMPIRICAL OBJECTIVES

With the considerations of the purpose of this study, it specifically focused on the following:

- To investigate the relationship between brand tribalism and corporate philanthropy;
- To investigate the relationship between brand tribalism and social identity;
- To investigate the relationship between brand tribalism and brand fetish; and
- To investigate the relationship between brand tribalism and purchase intention.

1.8 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This study asked the following with regards to the consumption choices of the South African middle-class metropolitan residents:

- Does corporate philanthropy have a relationship with brand tribalism?
- Does social identity have a relationship with brand tribalism?
- Does brand fetish have a relationship with brand tribalism?
- Does brand tribalism have a relationship with purchase intention?

1.9 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

This study is one of very few that focuses on the antecedents of brand tribalism and its influence on the luxury housing brand purchase intention. With that, the aim was for it to make a contribution in the following manner:

- Give valuable insights on the relationships investigated to practitioners within the luxury housing market of South Africa;
- Give valuable insights on the relationships investigated to academics; and
- Give valuable insights on the relationships investigated to South African Government policymakers.

1.10 DELIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

This study focused on investigating the antecedents of brand tribalism and its influence on luxury brand preference as well as luxury purchase intention within the luxury housing brand market. The study selected a sample group residing in the Gauteng metropolitan areas.

It should be noted that this study had shortfalls in that it did not consider the sampled individual life stages as well as family responsibilities, thus restricting the brand tribalism measure. Further to that, the tough economic times in the country could have posed as a deterrent or limitation to fully grasping the influence of brand tribalism. Lastly, it was only conducted within Gauteng.

1.11 DEFINITION OF TERMS

The following terms were used in the study and are thus defined:

1.11.1 Brand tribalism

A community of individuals formed on the basis of emotional attachment to a product or a brand (Muninz and O'Guinn, 1995; 2001). There is a strong connection between brand, individual identity and culture. Therefore, and more precisely, a brand community is as an enduring, self-

selected group of consumers, sharing a system of values, standards and representations, which accept and recognise bonds of membership with each other and with the whole (Veloutsou and Moutinho, 2009).

1.11.2 Luxury Housing Brand

Luxury Housing Brand is defined differently across different markets, as property values, median resident income and area development varies widely depending on the metro area (Thorsby, 2017). According to ABSA bank, luxury houses start from R3.5 million.

1.11.3 Corporate philanthropy

The devotion of substantial resources by business organisations to promote social welfare as well as improving stakeholder relationships (Wang, Choi and Li, 2007).

1.11.4 Social identity

That part of the individuals' self-concept which derives from their knowledge of their membership of a social group (or groups) together with the value and emotional significance attached to that membership (Tajfel, 2010).

1.11.5 Purchase intention

The use of possessions by consumers to formulate and adjust identities so as to fit the projections of who they are and aspire to be while being validated by the judgment of the external world (Hung *et al.*, 2011).

1.12. ASSUMPTIONS

There are a multitude of assumptions that could have been derived from conducting this study. These were:

- It could be assumed that based on the data provided from the participants, they fall within the group that the researcher was trying to measure;
- It could be assumed that the data that was collected would be a good enough representation of the individuals the study was focusing on within the metropolitan areas of Gauteng;
- It could be assumed that the country's economic downturn had not had much of a negative economic and lifestyle effect on the surveyed individuals; and
- There would be bias on the brand tribes that each individual was part of.

1.13 SUMMARY OF CHAPTER 1

Chapter 1 is a representation of how the study was meant to be rolled out. Further to that, a detailed elaboration of how the study was carried out, the set objectives of carrying it out and the detailed examination through core questions such as what leads to one being part of a tribal group, how important are reference groups in the influence of luxury housing market, as well as how important are reference groups in their influence on luxury brand purchase intention. Further to that, the definitions of the study's construct terms were discussed to set the tone of the comprehensive investigation below. To conclude this chapter, an illustration of the flow of the entire analysis was indicated. As a brief introduction of chapter 2, the section presents theoretical expansion of the constructs defined in this chapter through exploring and noting the existing literature on each.

1.14 SYNOPSIS OF THE STUDY

This study adopted an approach that contained scientific consideration, which meant a methodological manner of identifying research problems, collecting data and further analysing it, leading to valid conclusions and recommendations. To list the steps followed, the main purpose of the study was highlighted, followed by a theoretical review that was relevant to the identified problem. The discussion then led to the development of an empirical and conceptual framework,

resulting in the development of hypotheses, and lastly the discussion on data collected as well as a result discussion and recommendations for future marketing enquiries.

The table below is a highlight of the framework of this paper

Table 1: Overview of the study

Chapter	Summary
Chapter 1 (Overview of the study)	<p>This chapter is an introduction of the research that highlights the following:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Introduction, problem statement and sub-problem, purpose and objectives (empirical & theoretical) of the study; 2. Significance of the study; 3. Questions that the study is meant to address as well as the limitations; 4. Definitions of the key concepts of the study; & 5. Assumptions as well as flow of the study.
Chapter 2 (Literature Review)	<p>This chapter focuses on the theory on which it is grounded – group engagement model as well as a review on available literature on the antecedents of brand tribalism and luxury brand purchase intention. The summation of the chapter is through the creation of the concept model and the formation of hypotheses.</p>
Chapter 3 (Research Methodology)	<p>This chapter deals with the methodology adopted for this study, the data collection, as well as design used and the consideration of reliability and validity.</p>
Chapter 4 (Data analysis & interpretation of results)	<p>The chapter covers the results obtained from the study as well as what they mean. It also highlights the tools used to measure the data gathered.</p>
Chapter 5 (Conclusion, Recommendations & Suggestions for future research)	<p>This last chapter explores the summation of the study as well as the results it has yielded. It further makes</p>

	mention of the recommendations that the researcher proposes for the betterment of the marketing field as well as suggestions for more research in the future.
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CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

For the purposes of this study, theoretical considerations will be employed for a detailed review and understanding. An empirical analysis of the core variables – those being brand tribalism, corporate philanthropy, brand fetish, social identity and luxury brand purchase intention – as the outcome variable. Furthermore, the relationship between the variables will also be developed in this section of theoretical exploration.

An analysis of the best suited model as well as theory will first be discussed. This will be followed by a discussion of the key areas that are significant to the study – firstly, the concept of home ownership in South Africa. Secondly, the notion of middle class in Gauteng, and lastly, what luxury housing in Gauteng as a brand is defined as. An empirical review of brand tribalism, corporate philanthropy, social identity, brand fetish and purchase intention will then be deliberated on.

2.2 THE GROUP ENGAGEMENT MODEL

This study explores the group engagement model as it is best suited for the set objectives. This model is a development of the insights of the group-value model of procedural justice and the relational model of authority where an expansion on to why procedural justice has shaped societies, groups that work together in and outside organisations. The theory is that this model shapes people's social identity within groups, which impacts their outlook, morals, and conduct (Tyler and Blader, 2003).

According to Blader and Tyler (2009) – the driver of this model is how an individual’s behaviour is influenced by the group they belong to which ultimately leads to how that individual feels and perceives themselves. The authors further state that, a strong belief of group identification results in one behaving in a manner that will ensure that the group is seen in a positive light which therefore, will solidify their group association and identification. For various studies in the modern world, this model is generally included in investigations for organisational behaviour.

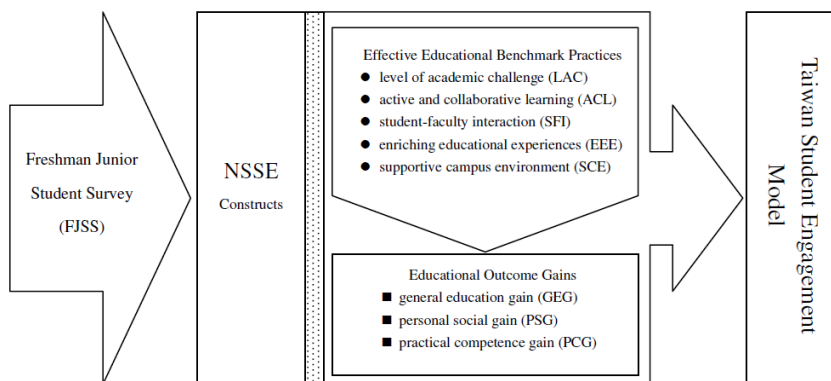
This model has been explored extensively in fields that relate to group engagement. It has been applied in differing ways, such as group engagement model “GEM”, classroom engagement model “CREM”, and Taiwan student engagement model “TSEM”, amongst others. An indication of this is through the work of Lipponen and Olkkinen (2006), where the investigation was on the relationship between organisational justices, identification with organisations and work unit, and group-related outcomes. In this study, the authors found that employees simultaneously identify with both the organisation as a whole as well as the work unit. Further to that, they made mention of the finding that the effects of justice perceptions on a group-related outcome could be explained through “social-identity-relevant” information they communicate. In addition to this, Tyler (2009) conducted research titled *testing and extending the group engagement model: linkages between social identity, procedural justice, economic outcomes and extra-role behavior*, which resulted in the conclusion that social identity of an employee in an organisation is very important as it is a determinant of their behaviour.

A further study is that of Guthrie and Davis (2003) where their focus was on motivating struggling readers in middle school through an engagement model of classroom practice. This reading highlighted that for teachers to motivate their readers they had to adopt six model practices that had to be rolled out by teachers in stages, making certain that none of them were conducted in isolation. The constructs that were of importance were learning and knowledge goals, interesting text, collaboration, as well as real-world interactions for purposes of emphasising the role of popular culture that has an influence in adolescent individuals, in addition to the consideration of real-world problems. The adoption of the model incorporates support for the learner’s social and personal needs, thus influencing their ultimate behaviour towards reading. Hu, Ching and Chao (2012) echo these authors’ assertions in their study of

Taiwan student engagement model: Conceptual framework and overview of psychometric properties, and further make mention that for students to remain engaged, it should be noted that students learn by having a sense of belonging at school, and a feeling of connectedness and acceptance. These are explained through dimensions of social engagement, academic engagement and intellectual engagement.

The figure below illustrates the formation of the Taiwan Student Engagement Model “TSEM”

Figure 1: TSEM



Source: Hu, Ching & Chao (2012)

2.3 THEORY OF PLANNED BEHAVIOUR (TPB)

The Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) – founded by a theorist named Ajzen – is one that discusses behaviour in the real world and is used as a predictor of intentions. Numerous researchers have used this theory to understand the relationship between intention and behaviour.

This theory came about because of a lack of available theory when dealing with behaviours over which individuals have partial voluntary control (Ajzen, 1991). According to Conner and Armitage (1998), TPB is a probability value model of “attitude-behaviour relationships”, which has experienced triumph in forecasting a variety of behaviours and, therefore, has appeared as one of the most significant and renowned theoretical frameworks for the study of individual conduct (Ajzen, 2002). Francis *et al.* (2004) further add on by making mention that for one to

postulate on whether an individual has plans on rolling out a particular conduct, there has to be knowledge of whether that person is keen to act in that manner, whether there is pressure to do so, as well as if they feel they are in control of the conduct.

The theory is guided by considerations that are tabulated below:

Table 2: Theory Definition

Considerations	Author
Behavioural beliefs (based on consequences); Normative beliefs (based on the expectancy of other people); and Control beliefs (based on human factors that might prevent the conduct).	Ajzen (2002)

Relevance of these models to the study

Through the consideration of “engagement models” and TPB highlighted above, it can thus be postulated that the need for involvement is crucial, no matter where one is in their life stage. Further to that, as there isn’t extensive studied within the middle-class South African consumer context- for this study, understanding and applying these models enables the researcher to further explore the principles around the formation of tribes within the South African middle – class, its drivers, as well as the influencers leading to an individual’s purchase intention.

2.4 HOMEOWNERSHIP IN SOUTH AFRICA

Homeownership in South Africa has a very long political issue that stems from the origins and perpetuation of segregation and marginalisation of its people. The history of homeownership discussed in Koch (1983) illustrates that there were five (5) categories of habitation for the working-class Johannesburg individual – namely, compounds, slums, domestic worker quarters, municipal locations and freehold townships. The country continues to be marred by this nature and one of the continued struggles post the apartheid era is that of land ownership and reform. In

O’Laughlin, Bernstein, Cousins and Peters (2013) study, the authors declare that land issues within the country are still evident and have been a point of contention even after the country has been liberated.

Stemming from these authors’ assertions of colonial land dispossession, amongst other challenges, the issue of housing within the country during this period was very evident and therefore has to be discussed in conjunction with available theory on housing in South Africa. Krige (2012) study takes one through the history of housing in South Africa and how townships such as Soweto came about. The study further highlights that housing issues as with land issues have always been in short supply for South Africans, particularly in Johannesburg. This then lead to housing structures (whether owned or rented) by the black South African being an element of social classification.

From the assertion above, the overarching themes are those of the disposition, lack of housing and land availability, retention of power by land owners, how ownership results in social classification and the evidence that humans want to be socially accepted everywhere they go through the acquisition and in this case homeownership. This theme is aligned to the two theoretical group models which were highlighted above and further contributes to this study’s hypothesised variable of social identity being a positive influence on brand tribalism which in turn will have a positive influence on purchase intention.

The work of Walsh (2013), titled “*We won’t move*”, is an example of the change directed at those who are economically active – where the author focuses on the housing development in the inner city of Johannesburg by a private company called “Revolution House”. The core objective of this, as the author states, is that of ensuring that the upper- and middle-class “return” to the city. Duca (2013) on the other hand shares his thoughts on those who reside in gated areas by mentioning that people live in these communities as a result of seeking freedom from the boundaries of the apartheid era.

For purposes of this paper, the focus was only on the middle class (non-poor) who are able to gain financial funding to attain their preferred luxury housing whether gated or not. Therefore,

giving a detailed background of homeownership within the country sets context to the evolution of South African habitation (controlled and uncontrolled) which in turn explains the purchasing habits of consumers in the housing market as well as within the demographics highlighted in this investigation. This then, gives rise to this study as it seeks to understand customer behaviour within the luxury housing market leading to purchase intention as well as the significant relationships which come about from the variables being tested.

With that, the discussion below will give a detailed theoretical exploration of the middle-class that is being tested in this study.

2.5 THE MIDDLE CLASS IN GAUTENG

For this study to fully discuss the concept of the middle class in Gauteng, it is crucial for the idea of “class” to be pondered upon initially. The notion of class through various studies and discussion is believed to originate from Karl Marx – in this confab, a detailed description from his work “The Marx-Engels Reader” will be focused on to gain an understanding of what he termed class and how it came about to later be adopted in numerous conversations and academic explorations.

In Marx’s work, initially, man was holistically involved in creating and producing what he and his family needed. He would occasionally trade with others to attain what he couldn’t produce – this is a notion of buttering. As a result of this, it gave him a sense of identity, self-worth and the ability for mental and physical developments if the need arose. As man is not static in being, developments came about and with those a capitalist society came to pass. With that, Marx stated that, in consideration of the initial involvement and sufficiency of man and his abilities, he now no longer made and produced things for himself. He worked for another man who in turn paid him for his services in order for him to purchase what he and his family needed from another. From this, man was now removed from all the activities he enjoyed, found pleasure and purpose in and was replaced with competing for his livelihood. This, then, brought about a society that was divided into workers (the proletariat), capitalists (the bourgeoisie) and the petty bourgeoisie. The petty bourgeoisie was later collapsed into the worker class, which then left two social

classes. This part of the study is relevant to the current investigation in that, it highlights how social involvement and group identification came above thus, solidifying the assertions of the proposed variables having a positive influence on brand tribalism.

In Burger, Steenkamp, van der Berg and Zoch (2015) study, they pick up another theorist – Mark Weber – who slightly differs from Marx in a sense through declaring that skills acquired through education determine the value of an individual within the market, and the amount of money one earns determines the kind of lifestyle that they can afford themselves and their families. Therefore, one's economic stance influences their social status, how they behave as well the groups they associate with - Khunou (2015) also adds that the class is grouped according to the experiences of those who fall within the grouping. This discussion places relevance and influence in the demographics which were selected and evaluated in the study.

The notion and understanding of class has gone through numerous amendments. However, it is evident that some elements of the definitions have remained and are still being applied. Southall, Burger and McAravey (2014) explain that the middle class is a group that is classified as educated, professional, urban, empowered, self-sufficient, consumer-oriented and aspirational. This group is assumed to be the drivers of continental development as well as democracy. Burger *et al.* echo Southall *et al.* by stating that education, social status, income, wealth and shared life perspectives have remained central to definitions of class. In further considering the current explanation and exploration of middle class, Khonou however declares that within the South African context being middle class is more of an experience and is complex. Additionally, Burger *et al.* state that South African middle class has undergone rapid growth from the apartheid era.

Statistically, the middle class make up thirty-four (34) percent of the overall African population and according to Chikweche and Fletcher (2014) this group “spend more than \$US6.9bn a year”. Further segmentation of the statistics points out that South Africa has a population of 54.96 million people (statistics South Africa, 2015), of which about four (4) million of the population fall under the “middle class” description and are based all over the country – this middle class is amongst the top when compared to the Brazil, India, China and Russia middle-class ratios.

From the above discussion and the relevance that was made mention of in every section, the opportunity that arises from the explored available studies is that, the current study has the potential of fully agreeing with the discussion as a whole, more especially that which highlights the positive relationship between social identity and brand tribalism outside of the Johannesburg area – that being, the Gauteng region.

2.6 LUXURY HOUSING BRAND IN GAUTENG

South African homeownership comprises, according to the big five Banks, of three categories under its umbrella – namely affordable, middle-class and luxury housing. These in accordance to ABSA Bank can be classified according to pricing and actual size as follows: Affordable (below R480 000), Middle (R480 000 – R3.5 million) and Luxury (R3.5 million – R12.8million). In South Africa, the entire residential market covers nine regional housing markets that are parallel with each province. In relation to house price performance, Delmendo (2016) says the price index for medium-sized houses went up 4.38% year on year during the year to end quarter 3 2016. However, when inflation was considered, the average house price actually went down 1.95%. Large-sized houses increased by 2.7% (-3.5% inflation-adjusted) year on year to quarter 3 2016.

With the middle-class South African individual being on the increase as stated in the previous section on “middle class”, it is safe to project that a great domino effect will in future be observed – where access to better living standards, habitable, spacious, up-market, low-density, safe and economically beneficial housing areas are in high demand – specifically those that fall under the “luxury” profile. Visser (2013) adds onto the projection by mentioning that as with the middle class, wealthy South Africans are increasing and the most economically active group comprises of individuals between the ages of 25 and 59. (Stienler, 2016). In considering the middle class and wealth increase – luxury housing developments, according to Herbert and Murray (2015) are a response to the demand made by middle class individuals due to the combination of the city and secure country way of life. Donald, Mehlomakhulu, Darkey, Dysseel and Siyongwana (2013) extend on the other authors’ declarations of the move middle-class

individuals are making by stating that the move made is to be closer to all necessary amenities, work and schools for convenience. From that, Duca (2013) indicates that gated societies are the preferred residential areas as they allow the sense of community as well as individuality when the need arises. As a result of these assertions, it becomes evident that the value of this personal shift not only aids the middle-class individual but also his family and the society at large. Collier (2012) further states that a home and its environs affect identity and self-respect.

2.6.1 Luxury Brand

With the concept of intentional luxury brand development for luxury living by estate developers being highlighted in the above discussion, it is important for the researcher to further explain the notion of a luxury brand.

Good consumer brand perception improves its performance in the market, thus making it a preferred brand (Hu, Liu, Wang and Yang, 2012). Hung, Chen, Peng, Hackley, Tiwsakul and Chou (2011) define brand preference as a singular choice of a branded product that is carefully crafted, unique, and conspicuous. Heine (2012) asserts that a luxury brand “evokes a mental image in people’s minds about what the corresponding set of real phenomena they have observed (including brands such as Louis Vuitton and Rolls-Royce) represents in general and what these phenomena have in common”. Hu *et al.* add on to these assertions by stating that this process of preference occurs through the organisation of clustering various attributes, thus creating image associations related to the brand around symbolic as well as functional dimensions. These images are then referenced against social and self-imagery. Humankind normally looks for clues and cues and further takes stereotypes into consideration, thus prompting their brand preference (Yasin, Mohamad and Noor, 2007).

Stokburger-Sauer and Teichmann (2013) explain that for customers to pick a luxury brand as their preferred one, brand personality plays an important part. It leads customers to perceive the brand personality and develop a strong connection to the brand. A brand personality should be shaped to be long-lasting and consistent. It should also be different from other brands and meet consumer’s demands. With the specific brand personality, consumers of varying personality traits will be attracted and their brand preference will then be further developed. In addition, a

company can maintain a good relationship with customers through its brand personality (Lin, 2010). This assertion confirms the development of luxury housing communities which was discussed above in that, the product is developed based on the customer (middle class) demand. According to Heine (2012), the inclinations linked to choices of luxury are informed by cultural values, which differ by gender, age, and education. However, the members of a cultural group also differ in their knowledge of the symbols of luxury. These facts demonstrate that there are also differences in the perception of luxury among the members of a cultural group. Therefore, luxury has an intensely individual component as well: what might be luxury to one might not be to another. As social learnings play a part in what one deems luxury or not, it is possible for any marketing interventions to have a positive influence on current luxury ideology. An example of this could be that, in years past it was seen as a form of prestige for one to own a house that has a big yard. Modern society however, has now been influenced that, paying large amounts of money to reside in gated communities that have little to no yard space is deemed as luxury.

With the above notions – Dyson (1996) rebuts these explanations by asserting that brand preference is not guaranteed to lead to purchase behaviour (Lin, 2010). Guo (2003) and Mengxia (2007), however, say considering Dyson's (1996) findings, the studies that were conducted in the later years proved that consumers have more preference for the brands having distinct brand personality – it is also likely that consumers are more familiar with the brands they prefer, thus leading to repeat purchase intention (Lin, 2010).

From the above concepts, it is evident that the thought of a luxury brand, as different as it might be from one individual or group to another, is influenced by personality traits that are created by brand custodians that are formally and informally (customers) employed by a brand organisation. Heine (2012) adds on by saying that luxury brand companies are always in a race to ensure that their brand is always intellectualised in a manner that consumers can easily identify with for continued luxury brand leverage.

2.7 EMPIRICAL LITERATURE REVIEW

The following empirical review was conducted for the purposes of concluding the study in question.

2.7.1 Brand tribalism

Scaini and Navarra (2015) explain that “tribes always existed under names of people, nations, groups, bands and fellowships. They are made out of followers and adopters of language or social representations, cultures, heraldic logos, material logos and commercial logos”. These groups of people, according to Munien (2015), “are linked by a shared belief around a brand” and are not only focused on consuming products and brands but are firm believers and promoters of them. Moreover, they are part of these groups as a way of attaining and maintaining social significance.

Basir (2015) defines a brand as “a name, symbol, design, or some combination which identifies the product of a particular organisation as having a substantial, differentiated advantage”. Scaini and Navarra (2015) further elaborate that “a brand is the image that consumers think of when they think of a particular company”. Some brands are viewed as cheap and inexpensive, while others are viewed as a better quality and expensive. Expensive brands are nearly always associated with luxury as they make up some of the most desired and rarest products in the world. Their prices can sometimes reach as much as 100 times more than the cheap and inexpensive counterparts; an example within the luxury housing market in South Africa might be “Pam Golding” properties. Some luxury brands also offer more affordable products that are still considered luxury in other financial classes, an example of this within the South African setting being “Balwin Property Developers”. Another view on brands is observed by Mandarin (2016) who asserts brand orientation as “a category of institution in which the corporate brand specifically acts as the cornerstone – and, moreover, the centripetal force – that informs and guides the organisation, especially in relation to its core philosophy and culture”.

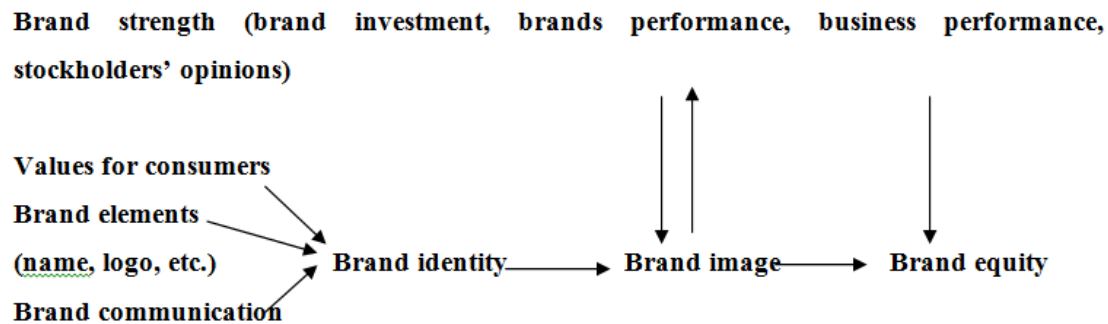
It’s very important to have life experiences – human life has components of being rich, exciting as well as complex at times. Cove, Kozinets and Shankar (2007) elaborate on this by stating that

the building blocks of an individual's social life are a combination of social groupings which everyone takes part in through the action and involvement required in everyday life. When the deliberation of individual experiences and how they come about is top of mind – an exploration of how products and services contribute towards those experiences should be actioned. In that regard, Prymon (2016) explains what the role of products should be in customers' lives when created by presenting the view that "product is anything that can be offered to the market to satisfy a desire or a need, and consists of asset attributes, including physical goods, services, experiences, events, people's places, properties, organisations, information and ideas". Further to that, Basir (2015) elucidates that "in product categories, the key criterion for a brand to be judged prestigious is an inherent, unique know-how, which may concern either a specific attribute or the overall quality and performance of the produce" – to this, Scaini and Navarra (2015) add that brands "are weapons in the struggle for identity". From the above description, it may be deduced that once there is positive association with the product stemming from various associations brought about by the customer benefitting from the product promise, a brand following/association is triggered. This is brought about by the organisation making it easy to identify, associating it to the actual market need and highlighting a differentiation factor amongst all other products. Further to that, once an organisation has a recognisable and effective brand name, it gives them the opportunity to make pertinent decisions on marketing variables, such as the product's high cost (Prymon; 2016). An addition to Prymon's assertion is that of Mandarino (2016), which states "consumers are increasingly seeking products that differ from the mainstream, thus companies regard niche markets as a promising opportunity beyond saturated mass markets. Niche brands represent a clear point of differentiation because these brands embody a specific product philosophy and thus attract particular consumer groups". Furthering these statements, Basir (2015) articulates "in the relationship marketing perspective, brand evaluation such as perceived quality is considered a major benefit of the relationship and the antecedent of trust and affective commitment. It influences a brand's credibility, reliability, and the perception of its technical skills. Further to that, it is one of the most tangible signs of the ability of the brand to satisfy future consumption and to have no reason to go against customers' interests". The Scaini and Navarra (2015) study on *the move from traditional totems that were considered to be a representation of specific values, and a place in which people would regroup to find the identity of a group* – makes mention of the fact that "logos have become symbols of

worship” where brands have catalysed on people as well as the interest of thousands. Thus inspiring people to a higher level of life and transforming them into materialistic deities where materially structured values and socio-commercial tribes are formed and solidified. To this, Mandarino (2016) adds through focusing on the target market of this study by emphasising that “millennials, unlike their parents’ generation, are highly brand conscious and display a high level of brand-signalling importance and status consumption”. He continues to say that this group tends to not be very brand loyal when compared to other groups.

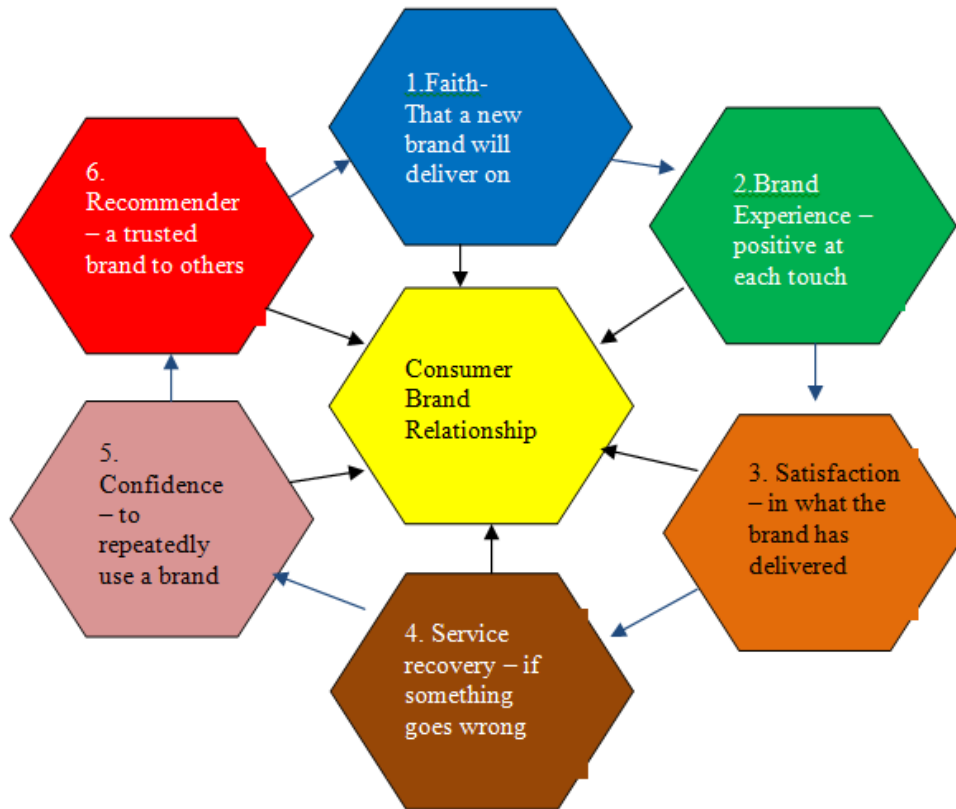
The illustration below shows the relationships between different aspects of a brand: brand identity, brand image and brand equity. Stress is put on the value for consumers as the main root contributing to brand identity and then to brand image.

Figure 2: Branding building chain



Source: Prymon (2016)

Figure 3: Stages of a positive consumer brand relationship - trust model



Source: Munien (2015) – “Metrix, 2014”

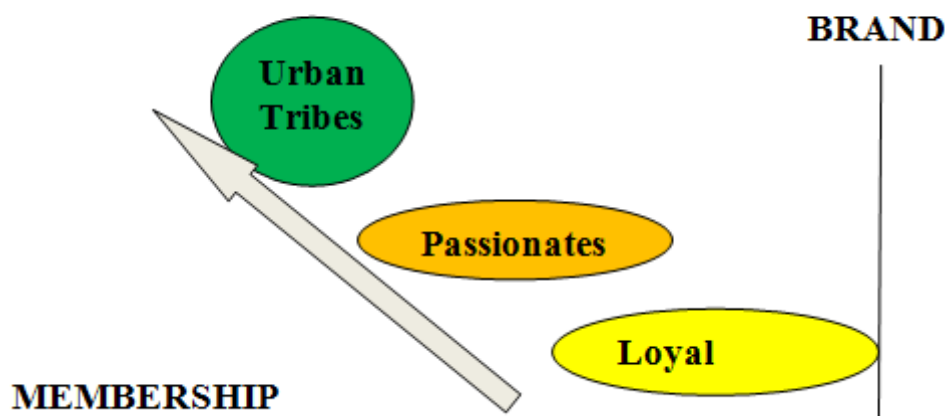
With the concept of brands being discussed in detail as a foundation for brand tribalism – Luedicke and Giesler (2007) explore the phenomenon of brand tribes and declare that brand tribes are a group of people who are not homogenous but interlinked by the same subjectivity, emotion and are capable of taking collective action, short-lived but intense. Munien’s (2015) definition of brand tribalism is through an investigation conducted on various researchers who state that this phenomenon is relatively new and consists of individuals that form part of a population that shares an emotional attachment to a certain product and/or brand. He goes on to declare that brand tribalism has gone through phases of “postmodern, technologically advanced society built on synergy and anarchism”. With this study being on millennials – they have become prone to being drawn to social unity through shared experiences, emotions and passions.

Luedicke *et al.* (2007) make mention of the three properties that conceptually constitute brand tribes. These are as follows: Consciousness of kind, which involves embracing intrinsic connections felt among members. The internal collective sense of difference is felt by those not

in the community. Secondly, rituals and traditions for purposes of perpetuating the community's shared history. And lastly, a sense of obligation or duty to ensure community coherence as well as the integration of new members. Maffesoli (1996) highlights the characteristics of tribes by averring that first there's a collective and tactile understanding of being in the community, a material sense of belonging. Second, tribal social life is established only in relation to the group; tribes are highly ethnocentric and one must either be for or against the group. Third, there is a mysterious, even religious aspect to the social network which governs group behaviours without central management. Fourth, it is an elective, affective society where a group is put before the individuals composing it. Fifth, there is a level of mystery; tribes protect themselves, their members, and their rituals with a vow of secrecy. Lastly, tribes may have goals and objectives, however, what is most important is the affective effort expended to create, constitute and maintain the group itself.

Below is an illustration of the formation of brand membership that depicts the stages gone through for brand membership.

Figure 4: Brand Membership



Source: Scaini (2015)

With the consideration of the above elaboration on the formation of tribes and brands – when further discussing the establishment of a relationship between a potential and/or existing brand

customer, it is safe to state that relationships are developed between the consumer, brand of choice, product, as well as other individuals that consume the brand. Through this affiliation and affirmation, emotional satisfaction is received by sharing the experience of owning the brand with others. Yang (2016), in addition to other investigators, states that the recent concept of brand tribalism can be explained as individuals within a group built on an emotional attachment to a certain brand which can socially and economically observed (Sciani, 2015).

Stemming from that, Veloutsou and Moutinho (2009) elucidate that consumers don't buy products for their utility, but because of the meaning they derive from it. From this assertion, it is an opportunity for brand managers to allow consumers to co-create the brand and brand image – that being, the brand community, cult, or consumer tribe facilitates the creation, communication, and the evolution of the brand (Taute, Sierra, and Heiser, 2010). Mandarino (2016) is in agreement with the authors by mentioning that in today's world, marketers need to make greater investments in understanding the change in the economic power of the consumer as well as ensure that their specific needs are catered to. Cova (1999) adds on by saying that the product represents the image. Implementing these recommendations could result in the discussion of branding from brand culture or community to a more closely linked group of tribal members sharing more than the brand ownership and use. Further declaration is that people look for differentiating factors in various brands, thus making them unique, as well as the thought that people want to connect with others and not necessarily with brands on their own.

The evidence is that brand tribes are a connection between consumers on the basis of a trademark. Moreover, Pawle and Cooper (2006:) affirm to this and further remark that “practitioners are advised that the future goes beyond branding to the creation of ‘lovemarks’”. An example extracted from Veloutsou and Moutinho (2009) study on brand tribalism is that of the discovery of the loyal consumers of Crown Pilot crackers that Nabisco had ceased production of their beloved product. Citizen lobbying began to pressure the corporation to reverse its decision. This illustration is an indication that consumer tribes are now the “leaders” and advocates of their beloved brands and can thus positively or negatively influence customer brand purchase intention.

From this, it is evident that a brand can unite its consumers in a social context, thus forming relationships brought about by shared brand experiences. Cove *et al.* (2007) conserve on this notion by presenting that the study and definition of brand tribes makes them reject the old view of people being individualistic, sealed off and separate from experiencing the world out there. Furthermore, it is very evident that our mass mediation world is filled with participatory personalities whose interests band together with commercial culture (Jenkins, 2006). An addition to this by Cova *et al.* (2007) is that the consumption of cultural resources circulated through markets facilitates meaningful social relationships.

As an illustration of today's brand tribalism adaptation, in Yang's (2016) study on mobile emotional connections, he found that "the shared emotional response influence attitudes brought about by shared brand experiences through mobile devices. In addition Scaini (2015) says that, people now belong to globalised, grobalised, glocalised and brandised society therefore meaning that their needs and wants are constantly changing and move along with tribes that meet those needs and wants.

2.7.2 Corporate philanthropy (CSR)

It's imperative for organisations to involve themselves in making their communities a better whether through making charitable contributions in the form of cash, donations and or in-kind – say Hinson, Renner and van Zyl (2016). Known as the oldest form of corporate social performance – which has gone through an evolution from social to stakeholder obligation that is currently deemed to have a sole strategic purpose of improving its corporate bottom-line – is the phenomenon known as corporate philanthropy; interchangeably referred to as corporate social responsibility, "CSR" (Patten, 2008; Youn and Ryu, 2014). Mensah (2016) pronounces that corporate social responsibility dates back to the industrial revolution. Bill Gates, in his 2007 speech to Harvard students, said that corporate philanthropy is a necessary methodology of helping those that the market cannot help (Henderson and Malani, 2009).

Table 3: Definitions of Corporate Philanthropy:

Authors	Definition
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Campopiano, De Massis and Chirico (2015:245)	“...the discretionary wealth transfer of net income to stakeholders.”
Fontelera (2015)	“...a company’s way of giving back to its community -- local, regional, national or international -- through financial donations and non-cash contributions such as time, expertise and tangible goods like computers, medicine, food and textbooks. Companies can donate to charities and nonprofits by giving directly from the company’s cash or assets, fundraising through its employees, and fundraising from others.”
Gautier and Pache (2015:344)	“...voluntary donations of corporate resources to charitable causes.”
Liket and Simaens (2015: 285)	“...the voluntary business of giving money, time or in-kind goods without any direct commercial benefit, to one or more organisations whose core purpose is to benefit the community’s welfare.”

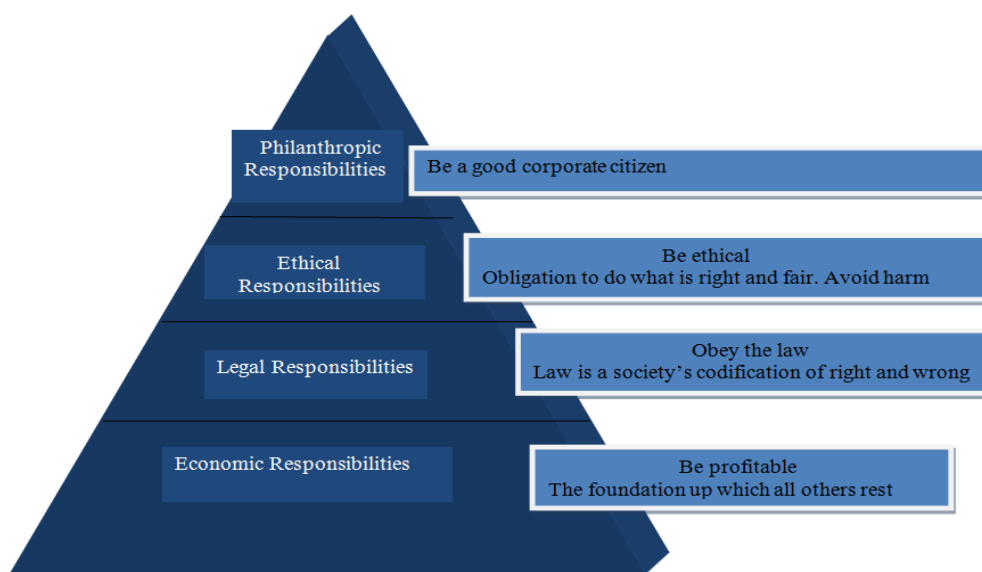
Source: Evans (2016)

Within various studies of corporate philanthropy, it has become very evident that a majority of organisations do not voluntarily make it their business to help the community they function in, but are somewhat regulated by their governments to do so as a way of bridging the gap. It can, however, be noted that with such regulations, organisations have found a strategic method of implementing “doing well for the community” to also benefit the brands they work with. This notion is evident and confirmed through Mensah’s (2016) assertion that the inclusion of CSR in an organisation’s strategy results in customer loyalty. From that, Bhattacharya and Kaursar (2016) make mention of the fact that brand houses are looking for an opportunity to connect with the society in different ways – CSR is a suggested method in which that can be achieved.

According to Mensah (2016), the custodian of the pyramid theory on corporate social responsibility is Professor Archie Carroll who noted four main responsibilities under CSR – those being economic, legal, ethical and philanthropic. Taking these corporate social responsibilities into account, a summative version of this is that corporations should take all of these responsibilities into account when conducting business.

The graph below is an illustration of his theory:

Figure 5:Caroll's Model



Source: Mensah (2016)

Previous research on this study conducted by marketers and other fields, according to Youn and Ryu (2016), resulted in common conclusions that stated – the effects of corporate philanthropy could be brand identification, loyalty, preference, customer satisfaction, and purchase intent. Further findings are those of Hinson, Renner and van Zyl (2016), explaining that corporate philanthropy was the core preference for customers when compared with customer-centric and community volunteering initiatives. To that, Ho (2016) advises that to increase luxury brand is a good idea.

An assertion according to Patten (2008) and other authors in his study on *why corporate philanthropy could lead to positive corporate value* is that corporate giving can increase the

product and brand name recognition as well as improve the overall outlook by the targeted audience. They further indicate that recent surveys present evidence in support of these claims by averring that in the early 90's a majority of Americans claimed that their purchase intentions were influenced by the involvement of businesses in CSR initiatives. Similarly, other cited data collected shows that young people would change brands to those associated with social issues.

An additional highlight into the twenty-first century is from Winograd and Hais (2014) declaring that the core influence of purchase intention among Millennials is that of the involvement of brands in corporate social responsibility. To this, Youn and Ryu (2016) do, however, declare that yes, corporate philanthropy can contribute towards enhancing the brand's image, but that does not consistently lead to immediate sales for any organisation. This could be because the influenced individual or group does not have financial means at that period to conduct and conclude a sale. Hinson *et al.* (2016) do, however, re-emphasise that "philanthropy initiatives have the greatest effect on both attitude and behavioural intentions of customers. Further rationale from the same authors is that – there is increasing evidence that links CSR to favourable stakeholder responses and firm performance indicators such as enhanced reputation, a motivated workforce, favourable consumer evaluations and increased purchases, the ability to attract potential employees and investors, and superior financial performance.

Wang and Qian (2011) brazenly signify the importance of philanthropy by organisations in pronouncing that corporate philanthropy positively affects corporate financial performance because decisions regarding charitable contributions can be made strategically to raise a company's image and reputation, as well as to increase the value of its "moral capital". Moreover, the supplementary advantage brought about by the roll-out of corporate philanthropy is that of "reputational capital" – where brands can charge an inflated rate for their premium offerings as they have already secured commitment and an extensive level of trust between them and the targeted audience (Henderson and Malani 2009). An example of this declaration is one taken from Bhattacharya and Kaursar (2016) – "McDonald's is using low-fat oil and procuring raw material from poor countries and also using biodegradable packing material. It is present in more than 100 countries, thereby generating employment. A percentage of revenue generated on each bill is spent on development purposes. Although it is a 100 per cent CSR activity, it is

silently touching the hearts of the people in terms of social responsibilities, which is actually adding value to the brand”. This is an indication that corporate philanthropy leads to a positive impact on the general profitability of brand owners. Henderson and Malani (2009) approve of this declaration by adding to the work of the above authors in affirming that people purchase philanthropy like they procure any other goods. Brand companies are in constant competition with each other in the quest to satisfy the customers’ demand, the correct price as well as the quality they require.

Currently, Mensah (2016) makes an observation that “the public expectations for companies to act in society’s best interest has increased, whereas the perception of companies acting in society’s best interest has declined. This has created a situation in which trust in business is disappearing. Within the African context and possibly within the Brazil, Russia, India, China and South Africa “BRICS” association, corporate philanthropy by consumers and residents is viewed very differently from other international consumers such as those in America. Africa is described as a third world country where resources and developmental essentials are very limited – there is standing hope for organisations to bridge gaps that the government has left unattended or created. In considering the current political mishaps within the African context, the gap that needs to be bridged is widening – however, when considering Mensah’s assertion on organisations not being trusted, it poses a very big challenge for marketing practitioners to change this perception. With that, in Hinson *et al.* (2016) study, the authors explored various academics on this topic which have thus led to this study settling on the notion that in least developed countries, Multinational Enterprises are expected to provide some social services and welfare programmes in addition to their normal economic activities; for example, they provide education, scholarships and build roads in Nigeria; build clinics and provide drugs for AIDS/HIV patients in South Africa; and also provide medication and vaccination for malaria in Zambia. In India, Coca-Cola has a philanthropic focus on education, health as well as the conservation of water, for which they have received awards – indicating positive consumer perceptions of the brand (Bhattacharya and Kaursar, 2016).

The common themes and drivers around the theoretical discussions on corporate philanthropy are those of: customer visibility and an increased profit margin for organisations that partake in this

philanthropic journey. Advertising and media exposure stimulate and intensify corporate philanthropy, thus influencing the perceptions of the organisation in the customer's eyes (Brammer and Millington, 2006). The positive philanthropy performance relationship is stronger for organisations with greater public visibility and a record of great past performances (Wang and Qian, 2011) – to this, Rivera *et al.* (2016) further make mention that when organisations give back to the community consumers reward companies by purchasing their products.

2.7.3 Social identity

Everyone wants to belong for various social, economic and emotional reasons. Thomas, McGarty and Mavor (2015) explain the formation of social identity by highlighting that it occurs within small group interaction where identities are developed through communication, consensualisation and negotiation about what it means to be viewed a part of a group by others.

“Social identity is a critical ingredient for understanding the psychological basis of people's engagement with their groups, organisations, and societies”; in addition, “people use their procedural justice judgments as a basis for evaluating whether or not a particular group is one in which they can safely invest their social identities, because procedural justice communicates to them whether the group is likely to help them develop and maintain a satisfying, positive social identity” (Blader and Tyler, 2009:145). In accordance to the “Social Identity Theory” – this phenomenon is explained as “that part of the individual's self-concept which derives from his knowledge of his membership in a social group (or groups) together with the value and emotional significance attached to that membership” (Espinosa, Schmitz and Rottenbacher, 2016:3). Simplified, social identity is how one is perceived by others (Carvalho, 2015). With regards to the formation of groups and the affiliation of an individual to a collective pertaining to the luxury housing brand, the concepts of value, economic and emotional significance play a very important role within the marketing fraternity – in that, in order for one to select and remain loyal to that group, their social identity needs to be where they envision it.

The core of social identity according to Hogg and Reid (2006) permeates from the notion that “people derive a part of their self-concept from the social groups and categories they belong to”.

Their social identity, originally defined as the individual's knowledge that he belongs to a certain social group which shares values and emotions which are very important to the individual is "a source of personal security, social companionship, emotional bonding and collaborative learning" (Haslam, 2009). It is, however, important to also note that the "accessibility of one's social identity is dynamic, and can vary contextually, even within cultures" (Coppin, Pool, Delplanque, Oud, Margot, Sander and Van Bavel, 2016:7). This, then, means that when people identify themselves as a member of a group, that does not mean that they only associate themselves with that one particular group – this therefore points out that their social identity could be rooted in many groups that they feel an affiliation to due to other shared values and beliefs which one group does not reflect on (Prati, Crisp, Pratto and Rubini, 2016). In addition to the above declaration, Espinosa *et al.* (2016:7) found that even with multiple group affiliations, group members of a high-status group "tend to identify more with their group than low-status group members". Therefore, alluding to the positive ripple belief of the higher ones' identification, the higher their chance of being socially accepted, thus leading to higher interpersonal confidence. An example of this will be illustrated from the Chonody and Teater (2015) study focusing on the phenomenon of aging. The authors applied the social identity theory to explain the process of aging from young to old (moving from the in-group to the out-group) – Individuals deal with their move and membership in the now out-group (old group) in one of three ways:

Social mobility – the individuals now in the old group refuse or deny that they are in the out-group and take particular measures to remain in the in-group (young group) as much as possible, such as using cosmetics or plastic surgery to alter their appearance. For this study, this could be applied where one once lived in a location that was considered to be infiltrated by successful and economically advanced individuals and is no longer the case as the move now is towards luxury estates. That individual could consider selling their house to move to the areas that are considered luxe.

Social creativity – the individuals embrace their new membership within the out-group and create their own identity by focusing on their positive traits. An example includes the community singing group the Golden Oldies or the Red Hat Society. To this, for this study, one could remain

in the “out-group” and accept that the value of the location they are currently residing in will not decrease and that economical entry and middle-level professionals consider it as a viable location.

Social competition – the individuals embrace their new membership within the out-group but also actively advocate for equal rights and challenge negative stereotypes and attitudes. Such groups include the AARP in the United States of America or Age UK. For this study, the individual could consider forming part of the community governance group to ensure that the location is well kept with minimal crime and other crucial factors that home buyers consider to be of importance when purchasing a house.

Social identity unswervingly arouses collective action (Zomeran, Spears and Postmes, 2008) and social groups shape perceptions, evaluations, judgments, presentation of reality as well as the memory of us and others (Coppin *et al.*, 2016). Collective behaviour and group identification are, according to Espinosa *et al.* (2016:8), “considered to be universal psychological processes that meet an adaptive function of human organism – increasing its individual competences – which are directed towards overcoming survival problems that humans have been exposed to throughout their evolutionary history”. When one identifies and self-defines themselves on the basis of being part of a certain group, it impacts their behavioural efforts as their actions are now guided by the customs of the group itself.

“Social identity defines, prescribes and evaluates who oneself is and how one should think, feel and act; people have a strong desire to establish or keep an evaluative superiority of one’s own group above other relevant groups” (Espinosa *et al.*, 2016) – to that, Hopkins, Reicher, Khan, Tewari, Srinivasan and Stevenson (2016:21) motivate that “individuals shift from thinking of themselves in terms of their personal identities to thinking of themselves as members of a common category, and the basis for their behaviour shifts from personal belief to group norms”. Hogg and Reid (2006) purport on this by proclaiming that one’s behaviour is channelled by group attitudes, which differentiates itself from other social groups and, therefore, being part of a group, fosters a level of self-esteem, self-worth as well as the comfort of knowing that your group members will come to your “rescue” when the need arises.

It is important to highlight that an extensive study was recently conducted by researchers on social groups and the findings indicated that respect (that one gets in social gatherings due to being affiliated to a certain group) directly links to social identity as well as group-oriented behaviour (Blader and Tyler, 2009). This finding is supported by Espinosa *et al.* (2016:4) through presenting that “Interaction with other people allows an individual’s social identity to be validated through social comparison”. Furthermore, when being a member of a certain group that is not opposed to individual interest, “people usually prefer to stay in the group, because this membership will have several benefits in future”.

2.7.4 Brand fetish

The exploration of fetishism has had an attraction from various theorists, as those of Marxism, Neo-Marxism and a multitude of variants of psychoanalysis. “It merits the scholarly gaze of disciplines as diverse as marketing, consumer research, anthropology, sociology, cultural studies, postcolonial studies, literature and art”, declares Bhogal-Nair and Tadajewski (2016:1). To this, they further extrapolate that this phenomenon has, however, had a kinship towards the scholarship of the marketing field as well as research on consumer behaviour.

Table 4: Definitions of brand fetish

Authors	Definition
Bhogal-Nair and Tadajewski (2016:2)	“...the manifestation ‘of irrational devotion and commitment to a particular person, place, thing or image’”.
Jabbar (2016:5)	“....fetishes are human constructions of a desired object that contributes to the ‘making of modern subjectivities and social relations’”.
O’Brien (2016)	“the fetishism of commodities consists in the first place of emptying them [commodities] of meaning, of hiding the real social relations

	objectified in them through human labour, to make it possible for the imaginary/symbolic relations to be injected into the construction of meaning at a secondary level. Production empties. Advertising fills. The real is hidden by the imaginary”.
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Source: (the researcher)

A brand fetishist, as explained, “worships the commodity and can’t get enough of it, finding herself in a never-ending web of consumption, while also mistreating those commodities already in his possession, never finding complete satisfaction in it. ‘Retail therapy’, as it is called in popular language, can never fully satisfy you; you always have to do more for an instant gratification that almost instantly wears off again. This is the carousel of commodity production and consumption” (Bohm and Batta, 2008:1). These authors further elaborate on this topic by declaring that fetish behaviour is “behaviour that can be called imaginary when its direction to an image, and its own value as an image for another person, renders it displaceable out of the cycle within which a natural need is satisfied” – it reverts to a point of fixation to a symbolic image or images. With that considered – Bhogal-Nair and Tadjewski (2016:1) add on by asserting that “for the fetish-practitioner, there is the potential for the realisation of psychological, emotional or sexual satisfaction through consumption”.

The concept of fetishism, according to O’Brien (2016:204), “makes the passive consumer seem active, and full of urgency, as he or she chooses and purchases this product which will make him or her a more full and complete and self-actualised person. Rather than buying a commodity, the consumer is engaging in a process of self-improvement; in some magical way, the product brings the consumer nearer to the ideal-I, to a perfectible version of themselves” – in our current economy this emanates from the creation by marketers of an artificial “lack of” space that consistently has to be filled. An example by Bohm and Batta (2008) extends this narration by stating “this starts with the fancy car the next door neighbour possesses, and ends with the neo-liberal economism at the heart of all government action today. Once you create intense competition between workers, companies, regions, and even countries, then you artificially

create lacks and absences that continuously have to be filled”. In addition to the discussion above, Bhogal-Nair and Tadjewski (2016:2) make mention that the practice of marketing in relation to the concept of fetishism is a “medium that perpetuates the idea that there is fetishistic pleasure to be found through difference and the ability to fuel the web of desire brings to the fore issues of power and difference”.

Khokhlova makes another example on art-branding as a reference to the development and maintenance fetishism as well as the desired effect it is meant to have on the outside world – “art-brand may carry real or fictional (simulative) characteristics. It includes real or fictional promise concerning actual meaning of an item. However, since brand is a modified form, its dominant component, form, is presented by illusive characteristics on which its image is based. For example, parquet circle of Russian theatres turns to be VIP zone for elite spectators during big tours of famous branded ballet dancers, such as Anastasia Volochkova or Nikolaj Tsiskaridze. The purchased item – an expensive ticket for the best seats – is, of course, used to pass through the ticket check and enjoy the performance. Anyway, this general function of the ticket may transform to indirect self-exposure. The chance to appear among the VIPs and to be connected with the elite while watching famous branded performers is also provided by the same ticket. In the end, the main purpose of going to a musical show is not only to watch the performance and enjoy it (which is not excluded), but to appear at the event, and constitute one’s social status, or to consume some ‘mana touch’ through connection with ‘sacred’ brands”.

Bhogal-Nair and Tadjewski (2016) proclaim marketing, quite clearly, is an industry that trades in fetishism. It aims to generate systems of meanings around products and services that make them seem better than real life, that is, as capable of helping us achieve a sublime state of want satisfaction, of taking us beyond this world just for a moment. O’Brien (2016:203) also adds that “advertising is almost a form of fetish religion, one that fulfils a sacred role in secular life – it attempts to fetishise a product in order to make us feel a sense of freedom and agency as human subjects; through its use, the fetish attempts to heal our sense of alienation with a commodity, which will, in some way, integrate us in society and make us seem connected to society and the other”.

2.7.5 Purchase intention

Intention when expanded on is an individual's inclination to behave in a certain manner (Han and Kim, 2010). Taylor and Todd (1995) on the other hand make mention of intention as a solid forecaster of the deeds of a person. This then, according to Tan (2012b), indicates that the intention to purchase comes before the decision to make that purchase.

Table 5: Definitions of Purchase Intention

Definition of purchase intention	Author
A subjective judgement by customers whom it reflected after customer evaluates whether to buy a product or a service.	Sidi and Sharipah (2011)
Customer's willingness to consider buying a certain product or services, purchase intention in the future or decision of repurchase.	Han <i>et al.</i> (2010)
A combination of consumers' interest in and possibility of buying a product. It strongly relates to attitude and preference towards a brand or a product so that measuring purchase intention assumes consumers' future behaviour based on their attitudes.	Kim and Ko (2012)
Customer prospective in planning to purchase a particular product or services in the future.	Wu and Teng (2011)

Source: (Researcher)

When it comes to gender segmentation with the concept of purchase intention in mind, males and females behave differently – females are emotional beings who are mostly led by how the product or service has appealed to them emotionally. In comparison, males regard gaining a detailed understanding of the product or service as imperative before making a decision to purchase (Leppel, 2007). Further to this assertion, Krainer (2005) indicates that due to men regularly being in leadership roles and mostly not being open to asking for guidance, they tend to

make decisions promptly. Females, on the other hand, tend to initiate exchanges and are more open to bargaining, hence the delay in purchase. In considering this discussion, Fishbein and Ajzen (2005) do however express themselves in underlining that as a result of the human psyche and conduct being complex, individual behaviour as a whole cannot be foretold.

Consumers hardly ever take decisions in isolation. Shukla (2012) says that consumer purchasing decisions are methodically affected by cultural and social values as well as customs. A further declaration is that social influences are most important when it comes to purchasing luxury items as consumers' purchase intention is based on the need to always create a favourable social image that emanates from the luxury purchase. Hung, Chen, Peng, Hackley, Tiwsakul and Chou (2011) agree with Shukla's statement by adding that "consumers use possessions to formulate and alter their identities, in order to fit their own projections of who they are and aspire to be. At the same time, this process must also be validated by the judgment of the external world".

According to Jabareen (2005), housing preferences are greatly determined by one's religious philosophies, their common relationships as well as affinity. The purchasing pressure that individuals experience emerges from their immediate circle of association (Phungwong, 2010). An example from Kalafatis *et al.*, (2000) is that of friends or the product salesperson. The ultimate action taken by a purchaser is generally influenced by those close to him or her – if a person close to the purchaser has a positive image of the product or service, there's a high likelihood that that product or service will be acquired. Whereas, if the perception or image is negative, the purchase intention is significantly reduced (Kotler and Keller, 2006; Ravis and Sheeran, 2003).

The modernist approach of creating purchase intention can also be from the brand itself – taking partial ownership of the communication and influencing how that is generated to the audience and releasing it in the most effective and current channels, thus creating an awareness that leads to intention. An example of this notion is that of Dolce & Gabbana who employ the latest instant gratification social tool in order to be in constant two-way communication streaming in real time. They invite fashion bloggers to the front seats of their fashion shows, and the bloggers instantly upload feedback from the show on Facebook, Twitter and Instagram. In that way, customers get

to see their favourite brand modelled directly without the involvement of fashion editors or merchandisers, and, therefore, the company builds purchase intentions immediately (Kim and Ko, 2012). An addition to building purchase intention amongst older consumers, according to Hung, Chen, Peng, Hackley, Tiwsakul and Chou (2011), is considering that they are more financially independent and therefore have a higher purchase intention. The authors continue to say that individuals who do not have sufficient funds can still have the desire for a luxury brand, although this desire cannot be equated to purchase intention unless they have the financial means to actually buy the product. To that, Razak, Ibrahim, Hoo, Osman and Alias (2013) further highlight that monetary reflection, especially that of house amounts, has an effect on the purchase intention of a house.

2.8 CHAPTER 2 SUMMARY

The initial part of chapter two commenced with the discussion of the two theories on which the study was grounded – those being Engagement Model as well as the Theory of Planned Behaviour. The section that followed was that of a detailed literature review on the constructs of the study that were highlighted in chapter 1, namely brand tribalism, purchase intention, corporate philanthropy, brand fetish, and the housing market in South Africa – linked to luxury brand.

CHAPTER 3: CONCEPTUAL MODEL AND HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT

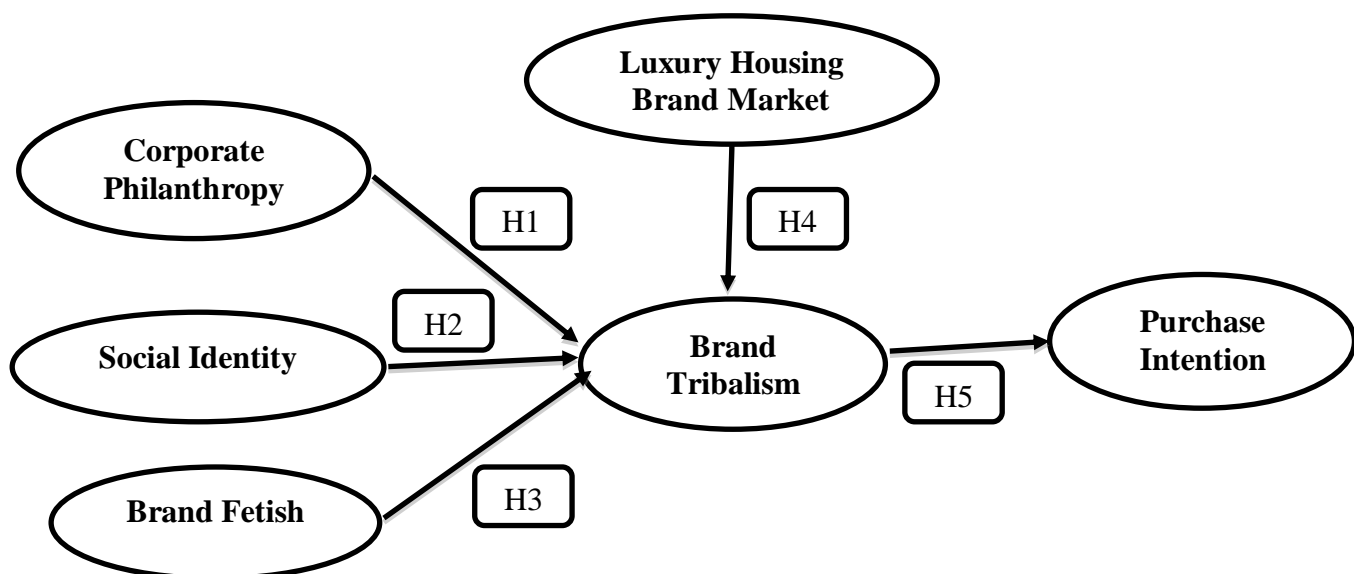
3.1 INTRODUCTION

Taking from the literature review conducted in the previous chapter 2, a research conceptual model was hypothesised. From that hypothesis, the development of relationships between constructs was further established to be empirically tested.

For the researcher to statistically examine the relationships between the constructs of this investigation, a theoretical framework, on which this inquiry is based, is showcased in the figure below (figure 6) – this model was developed by the researcher as the theory available with the exact variables was very limited and a challenge to find. This research will study five (5) variables, which are: corporate philanthropy, social identity, brand fetish, luxury housing brand market, and brand tribalism, which is the predictor variable that leads to purchase intention. The luxury housing brand market can affect brand tribalism with the outcome being purchase intention.

The section below will explain the relationships between the mentioned constructs, and thereafter, hypotheses development will be discussed.

Figure 6: Conceptual Model



3.2 HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT

With increasing studies on brand tribalism and its significance in the field of Marketing, this exploration proposes that brand tribalism is a predictor variable to luxury housing brand market purchase intention. It is hypothesised that when one is part of a brand tribe (or has a desire to be part of it) their intention towards purchasing a luxury housing brand is increased. The literature aligned to this investigation has already been reviewed where the key constructs were explained and well-defined. The section below is a discussion of the associations between the constructs.

3.2.1 Corporate Philanthropy and Brand Tribalism

Corporate philanthropy is a company's investment in social programmes that are aligned to its missions, goals and objectives, says Evans (2015). With that, brand success is achievable by ensuring that the philanthropic involvement of the organisation is visible to consumers (Ebrahiminejad, 2016), as consumers are now very sentient about images of brands and how they contribute towards solving social issues (Pallavi and Kaushal, 2016).

According to Singh, Teng and Netessine (2016), the use of philanthropic campaigns by organisations is solely to make potential consumers aware of their brand, incite action and ensure retention. This could be done in a way where the brand promises to donate a certain percentage of the money the consumer spends on their product to a worthy cause. In their study they found that there is reliability on customers being motivated by the sentimental "warm glow" they get from giving and not just "their extent on social impact". These authors do, however, highlight that further investigation is required on the effects that corporate philanthropy has on the consumer's ultimate action. Previous research has acknowledged that when customers are aware of the community "good" that the organisation is part of, they develop positive views of that brand. To this, based on Kerner and Sumner's (2016) investigation, they found that products and services are easily taken up by the market if there is a corporate philanthropy initiative which the brand owners are aligned to. With that in mind, Evan (2015) made a calculation that highlighted

the numeric return on investment associated with an organisation focusing on philanthropic initiatives. An example he made in his study was that “a \$500 000 increase in charitable contributions on average could generate an additional \$3 million in sales revenues, equating to a \$791 500 increase in net income”.

From this theory, it is evident that the continuous process of refining customer brand awareness and brand image warrants constant sales and profitability, which results in competitive advantage and eventual brand survival.

When discussing the concept of brand tribalism, the overarching theme is that of the emotional engagement of customers as well as their behaviour informed by that. This theme is evidently aligned with the discussion of corporate philanthropy, deliberated on above. This notion is confirmed by Bikernieks’ (2015) definition, stating that this is a community of people brought together by a strong emotional connection for a specific brand. According to Loureiro and Kafmann (2016), brand tribalism is an opportunity where an association between a group of people and a brand can be successfully established. In their study, they found that social values had a greater influence on brand tribalism. This assertion is demonstrated in Maria’s (2016) enquiry when the author declared that in measuring brand attachment through the adoption of the TPB model, it was noted that brand consumers who had intentions of sustaining the relationship with a certain brand, normally also influenced their close associates to either do the same thing or freshly start a relationship. Based on the above literature, the following hypothesis has been developed.

H₁ ⇨ there’s a positive relationship between Corporate Philanthropy and Brand Tribalism.

3.2.2 Social Identity and Brand Tribalism

With numerous empirical studies on social identity, the common denominator across all discussions is that social identity has a focal point of group and identity development, interaction, belonging and shared behaviour.

Chonody and Teater (2015) explain social identity as one being a member of a particular group which has an effect on their identity within a society. The authors further state that, to that

individual, being part of a group is crucial and becomes part of their sense of self. With that, a different approach to social identity is that it is the perception others have of an individual within a collective (Carvalho, 2015). Further to this assertion is one where Carvalho (2015) declares “identity-formation is based on the exclusion of nonmembers”.

Groups create their own customs that are governed by a certain conduct. These norms are believed to build the features of a group as well as apply behavioural standards within the group. When individuals conform to these standards, their identity as members of that group is validated (Gangadharan, Jain, Maitra and Vecchi, 2015), thus indicating that social identification has an influence on group action (Carvalho, 2015). Further addition on social identity is through Hopkins, Stevenson, Shankar, Pandey, Khan and Tewari (2016) when they say “it is when people define themselves in terms of membership of the same social category rather than their unique individuality that they begin to act as group members. First, people’s behaviour is in accordance with their understanding of their collective identity. Second, people’s social relations with one another are changed such that to the degree that they view themselves as sharing a common identity, their interactions are more trustful, respectful and helpful”. In addition, brands have now become a social differentiation tool for those besieged by the desire of social identity (Scaini and Navarra, 2015).

The study of brand tribalism and its positive relationship with social identity is based on the shared premise that everything is done through the affiliation and influence of a developed social group. In considering the theory on social identity above, brand tribalism theoretically involves group consumptions. To this, brand tribalism is explained in relation to social identity as a group of brand consumers who share all the philosophies associated with a particular brand. Basir (2015) states that brand tribalism involves the centrality of tribal brand consumption and places importance on social relationships being developed. In summation, current successful brands have had a positive contribution towards the identity of consumers in that brands are now big influencers in how people behave. This has thus created shared experiences that have brought about brand loyalty. Based on this discussion, it can therefore be hypothesised that:

H2: ⇨ There’s a positive relationship between social identity and brand tribalism.

3.2.3 Brand Fetish and Brand Tribalism

The concept of fetishism, according to Bhogal- Nair and Tadajewski (2016), “connotes the idea of the production of an item – however rudimentary the processes involved – that has value for someone, a value that those not involved with the consumption practice, brand community, consumer tribe, or subculture will often find difficult to comprehend”. A different view is that of Jabbar (2016), who says “advertising-as-religion has transformed the ‘fetishism of commodities’” where capitalist societies become symbolic with its commodities becoming fetish objects”. Kelly-Holmes (2016) takes this narrative further by stating that brand fetish is a process of creating symbolic value that is greater than what it actually is – the transformation of a basic item into a “sacred and celebrated being by pouring extra meanings into its sensual form” (Khokhlova). According to Fay, Haddadi, Seto, Wang and Kling (2015), “The fetish community has grown rapidly in recent years and now consists of a diverse collection of people whose interests cover a broad spectrum including, fashion, burlesque, a nightclub scene, particular types of music and of course a focus on sexual experimentation”.

Through theoretical suggestion, brand tribes are a connection between consumers on the basis of a trademark. The concept of “lovemarks”, says Pawle and Cooper (2006), has now been introduced to the field of consumer marketing, indicating that in the world we live in, consumers are motivated by the “fire of desire” (Veloutsou and Moutinho, 2009). Considering the discussion above, it can be hypothesised that:

H₃ ⇒ Brand Fetish has a positive relationship with Brand Tribalism.

3.2.4 Luxury Housing Brand and Brand Tribalism

In reference to the research done by Chikweche and Fletcher (2014) on middle-class individuals, the take out was that “house ownership emerged as a key independent variable from the general discussion on asset ownership”; furthermore, owning a house “was viewed as the ultimate achievement and in some ways was the final confirmation of personal status” within middle-class

individuals. The majority of the environments that the middle class invest in are those that are made up of young couples just starting out, middle-class families, well-off and retired families and even some very wealthy seasonally based families, according to Duca (2013). The choice of living in these areas is influenced by the growing trend of “privatised urbanisation” and the concept of living in a totally new development and setting in a certain suburb, which according to them only a certain tribe can be members of due to access. Duca (2013) further highlights that for marketing purposes the luxury estate brand custodians invest a lot of effort and money in order to contrast the reputation of living in a “simple area”, mainly by stressing the uniqueness of the estate, thus creating the feeling that being part of this tribe explicitly points out luxury and exclusivity. This then implies that the marketing influence on what determines the luxury housing brand is a driver for the development of that particular estate tribe. To this, it can be hypothesised that:

H₄ \Rightarrow *Luxury Housing Brand has a positive relationship with Brand Tribalism.*

3.2.5 Brand Tribalism and Purchase Intention

Munien’s (2015) study on brand tribalism found that the development of formation brand tribes has a positive undulation outcome on brands, which results in purchase intention; further to this, there is evidence that the brand tribes have a devotion to the brand it is built on, therefore further indicating the development of a long-term sale relationship. Yang (2016) also states that brand tribes have an effective-laden relationship with brands which stimulates a positive attitude that leads to purchase intention.

In an empirical study conducted by Badrinarayanan *et al.* to determine consumer behavioural intention, the researchers found that brand tribalism positively affects purchase intention. A further positive finding between brand tribalism and purchase intention was that of Tuominen (2011) where the study was conducted to identify “the relations between tribalism and tribal marketing by analysing consumer behaviour and the formation of the tribes within a Facebook and blog environment”. In view of the theory above, it can be hypothesised that:

H₅ \Rightarrow *Brand Tribalism has a positive relationship with Purchase Intention.*

Table 6: Hypotheses Statements

H/No.	Hypothesis Statement	Hypothesised Relationship
H₁	There is a positive relationship between brand tribalism and corporate philanthropy in Gauteng, South Africa.	BT \Rightarrow CP (+)
H₂	There is a positive relationship between brand tribalism and social identity in Gauteng, South Africa.	BT \Rightarrow SI (+)
H₃	There is a positive relationship between brand tribalism and brand fetish in Gauteng, South Africa.	BT \Rightarrow BF (+)
H₄	There is a positive relationship between luxury housing brand and brand tribalism in Gauteng, South Africa.	LB (luxury housing brand) \Rightarrow BT (+)
H₅	There is a positive relationship between brand tribalism and purchase intention in Gauteng, South Africa.	BT \Rightarrow PI (+)

Source (Researcher)

Key:

- *BT = Brand Tribalism*
- *PI = Purchase Intention*
- *CP = Corporate Philanthropy*
- *LB (Luxury Housing Brand) = Luxury Housing Brand*
- *SI = Social Identity*

CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

4.1. INTRODUCTION

“The search for truth shapes all fields of inquiry. Within the social sciences, the notion of truth and the methods used to uncover it have for centuries undergone – and continue to undergo constant reflection and revision”, says Baronov (2012).

Chapter (2 and 3) gave an in-depth discussion on the theoretical models that moulded the origin of the research. Further to that, it delved into variables within the models that were implemented. This chapter identifies and describes the research methodology, which is defined as an incorporation of principles, practices and procedures required to carry out research for purposes of meeting the study’s set objectives (Peffer, Tuunanen, Rothenberger and Chatterjee, 2008).

Broadly, research methodology has three objectives, namely, to identify and describe the research strategy, the research design, as well as the procedure and methods. This chapter further describes the reliability and validity measures that were applied to make the study credible through testing out the hypotheses that have been predetermined in this report with the aim of attaining comprehensive answers to the questions that have been articulated in chapter one of the study. Further to its description of reliability and validity, it will explore the technical and administrative limitations that are anticipated. Taking into account the brief clarification on research methodology above, this section of the study is intended at extensively discussing what it actually is and how it was applied for the successful conclusion of the report – found in Section 4.2, research design, found in Section 4.3 that will touch on the process conducted for the set research methodology as well as the collection and analysis of the selected data for the study. A supplementary argument will be on the validity and reliability measures, found in Section 4.4. In conclusion and summation of the chapter, ethical considerations will be noted as well as any limitations that have been experienced during the study.

4.2 RESEARCH PHILOSOPHY

According to Uher (2015) the name philosophy of science indicates that great emphasis is placed on making explicit as comprehensively as possible, the absolute presuppositions, metatheories and methodologies on which it and other lines of research are based. The author continues to declare that when presuppositions are made explicit, critical reflection, discussion and further development of previously established theories, models and research practices and the derivation of ideas for novel lines of research are easily made. All research methodologies, according to Eriksson and Kovalainen (2014), are connected to a research philosophy and its possible ways to bring about new knowledge. Through these brief discussions, it is evident that for a study to deliver on what it has promised, philosophical thoughts for research have to be known and understood.

From available literature and various research studies conducted, research philosophy has different approaches, those being – positivism and constructivism. The table below demonstrates the differences between the approaches in accordance to Dudovski (2016):

Table 7: Positivism vs Constructivism

	Positivism	Constructivism
The observer	Must be independent	Is part of what is being observed
Human interests	Should be irrelevant	Are the main drivers of science
Explanations	Must demonstrate causality	Aim to increase general understanding of the situation
Research progresses through	Hypotheses and deductions	Gather rich data from which ideas are induced
Concepts	Need to be operationalised so that they can be measured	Should incorporate stakeholder perspectives
Units of analysis	Should be reduced to simplest terms	May include the complexity of ‘whole’ situations

Generalisation through	Statistical probability	Theoretical abstraction
Sampling requires	Large numbers selected randomly	Small numbers of cases chosen for specific reasons

Source: Dudovskiy (2016)

For purposes of this study, this research paper adopted a positivist research philosophy approach. The main focus was on investigating brand tribalism and the influences it may have on luxury brand purchase intention – specifically, that of the luxury housing brand market, and further tested the relationship between the assumed variables that make up the concept of brand tribalism. As this was an exploration within the Marketing field, the researcher did not ignore that this field has undergone numerous adaptations throughout the years and further to that, so has the process of enquiry. Baronov (2012) affirms - for the concept of positivism to be where it is now, it had to go through various modifications throughout the years. In its initial phases, it was referred to as “embryonic positivism” which “represented an early stage in the development of a distinct approach to understanding society. The specific methods of investigation included empirical observation, comparisons of conditions and experimental verification of hypotheses and theories”. A modification of this “early stage” was denoted as logical positivism which had the main focus of “finding a meaningful and universal language to convey what was true and what was false”. These modifications led to the current explanation of what positivism is, which according to Gray (2013), is a form of reality that needs to be investigated by utilising a scientific process.

4.3 RESEARCH STRATEGY

Copious authors in their research work define research strategy as a plan on how a researcher intends on conducting a study (Bryman, Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2012). In Creswell’s (2014:3) work, research strategies “are plans and the procedures for research that span the steps from broad assumptions and detailed methods of data collection, analysis and interpretation”. “It controls the study, dictates how the data is acquired, arranges them in logical relationships, and sets up an approach for refining and synthesising them”, says Leedy and Ormrod (2014:4).

In order to conduct this study and get the insights that were desired, a consideration of the varied available strategies was on quantitative, qualitative and mixed research strategies. For purposes of this study, these approaches were explored in detail below.

A quantitative study according to Bryman (2012) can be explained as a process that focuses on the quantification in the collection of data as well as the method of analysis. Creswell (2014) adds onto this assertion by stipulating that it is a “means of testing objective theories” through challenging existing relationships amongst stated variables. Kumar (2014:14) highlights that this research strategy is entrenched in the rationalism philosophy where set structures and procedures “to explore aims” for quantifying external variation in a “phenomenon that emphasises the measurement of variables as well as the objectivity of the process” is embarked upon.

A qualitative study, on the other hand, is one which focuses on the description and narration of feelings witnessed, perceptions in addition to experiences. According to Kumar (2014:14) it is “embedded in the philosophy of empiricism and follows an open, flexible and unstructured approach of enquiry”. The aim of this study is to assess the varied complexities of an occurrence (Leedy, Ormrod and Kumar, 2014).

Lastly, the mixed research strategy involves the combination of the two strategies discussed above. This is mostly done when a researcher wants to get a greater understanding of their study of interest (Bryman, 2012). Kumar (2014) further states that an additional aim is that of adopting a strategy that will render the best results for each exploration.

From the above explorations of research strategies, it became evident and apparent that a quantitative study was the best approach to employ for the purposes of meeting the aims and objectives of this paper.

The benefit of using this strategy in this study was that it enabled the researcher to get an understanding of the positive relationship brand tribalism had with all the dependent variables, as well as the influence on luxury brand purchase intention.

4.4 RESEARCH DESIGN

A structure that guides the execution of a research method and analysis of data is how Bryman (2012) explains what a research design is. A further simplistic description is that of Saunders *et al.* (2012), where they state that it is “the general plan of how you will go about answering your research question(s). Leedy and Ormrod (2014:76) expand on this description by indicating that “the research design provides the overall structures for the procedures, the data the researcher collects, and the data analyses the researcher conducts. Simply put, research design is planning”. With this structured planning, there are five (5) generic research designs which will be listed with reference to Bryman (2012). These are cross-sectional, longitudinal design study, case study, comparative study and Quasi-experimental designs.

In order to achieve the set aims and objectives of this study, the research design that was embarked upon is that of a cross-sectional study structure. This will now be discussed in detail for purposes of ensuring that the set principles were adhered to.

A cross-sectional study as stated by Kumar (2014; 134) is “also known as one-shot or status studies and are the most commonly used design in the social sciences. This design is best suited to studies aimed at finding out the prevalence of a phenomenon, situation, problem, attitude or issue, by taking a cross-section of the population. They are useful in obtaining an overall ‘picture’ as it stands at the time of the study”. Bryman (2012; 58) makes mention that it is “the collection of data on more than one case and at a single point in time in order to collect a body of quantitative or quantifiable data in connection with two or more variables, which are then examined to detect patterns of association”. Leedy and Ormrod (2014; 194) agree with the above assertion and further add to it by declaring that the data collected and compared can be from individuals that differ in age.

4.4.1 Sampling design

Castillo (2009) emphasises that sampling is generally done as a result of the incapability of testing every single individual within a population; furthermore, it is done to save time, money and effort while conducting the research. Taking this assertion into consideration, every

researcher must keep in mind that the ideal scenario is to test all the individuals to obtain reliable, valid and accurate results (Castillo, 2009). Should testing all the individuals be unmanageable, as Castillo (2009) stated, then sampling techniques can be relied upon. Researchers should further note that this form of study must be conducted correctly as errors can lead to inaccurate and misleading data. Gray (2013) further asserts that all individuals or objects within a certain population usually have a common binding characteristic or trait. It is for the benefit of the population that research is done. However, due to the large sizes of populations, researchers often cannot test every individual in the population because it is too expensive and time-consuming. This is the reason why researchers rely on sampling techniques.

The design for this study was that of a quantitative study, where a questionnaire was created containing all the variables which have been discussed in chapter three (3).

4.4.2 Target population

A component from which the sample was selected was a justification of what a target population is according to Bryman and Saunders *et al* (2012). Kumar (2014) further adds a point that “the size of this population is usually denoted by the letter N”.

In order to attain and generate the knowledge that is anticipated through this detailed analysis, the population will include South African middle-class individuals who aspire to be homeowners in an upmarket estate based in the metropolitan areas of Gauteng.

As this study was aimed at researching all nationalities, the numbers were determined by the concentration of that “colour” within the identified metropolis derived from Statistics SA and the sample size calculator was also employed to give guidance on the accurate number that was sampled. Further to that, a description of the living standard measure was derived from The South African Advertising Research Foundation, which is a unique tool put in place to measure (groups that possess certain items and live in certain areas) and segment the overall South African market.

An expansion on why the set target population was singled out was due to the assumption that they were actively involved within the South African “economy”, thus indicating that they are and have been exposed to the luxury housing brand market as well as the “tribalistic” consumerism trends.

4.4.3 Sampling frame and size

A sample is a process that involves selecting a representative portion of a population that will best yield the results required in a study (Leedy, Ormrod and Bryman, 2012; Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2014).

In this study, the sampling frame was drawn from South African middle-class individuals who were between the ages of 26 and 45 years of age.

The decision on the sample was partly based on the report from Stats SA discussed in the introductory phase of this paper. Further to these assertions, this group is assumed to be well educated, driven, progressive, and professionals who have the potential of being influenced to reside in areas that identify them as such. Southall (2016) best described a part of this sample frame by stating that “‘obvious affluence’, or ‘conspicuous consumption’, is one of the behaviour traits most commonly ascribed to the black middle class. It is an image which has been much strengthened by the black elite’s penchant for expensive cars and large mansions along with indulgence in the lavish parties and fashionable weddings that are regularly splashed over the weekend press”.

From the pointers above, this sample was deemed suitable for this study as the total number of the targeted population guaranteed at least 267 responses. Further to that, the number of responses that were decided upon were scientifically indicated by the Raosoft® online sample calculator where a confidence level of 95% and 5% margin of error were employed. A researcher can use this tool to determine how many people need to be interviewed to get results that reflect the target population as accurately as possible. The researcher utilised a population size of 866 and received 267 respondents for this study.

4.4.4 Sampling method

Sampling, according to Kumar (2014:382), is “the process of selecting a few respondents from a bigger group to become the basis for estimating the prevalence of information of interest to you”. Whilst in Bryman (2012:187) it is defined as a “segment of the population that is selected for investigation. It is a subset of a population”. Leedy and Ormrod (2014:212), on the other hand, indicate that “the researcher will usually not study the entire population of interest. Instead, he or she will collect a subset, or sample, of the population”. From these expansions, there are various methods of sampling. As this study was a quantitative one, the researcher focused on the sampling methods aligned to it, those being: simple random sample, systematic sample, stratified random sampling and multi-stage cluster sampling.

A table illustrating the definitions of the sampling methods listed above will be highlighted below:

Table 8: Definitions of the sampling methods

Sample Methods	Definitions	Authors
Simple random sample	Involves you selecting the sample at random from the sampling frame using either computer or random number tables	Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2012)
Systematic sample	The selection of units directly from the sampling frame – that is, without resorting to a table of random numbers.	Bryman (2012)
Stratified random sampling	is a modification of random sampling in which you divide the population into two or more relevant and significant strata based on one or a	Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2012)

	number of attributes	
Multi-stage cluster sampling	Primary sampling unit is not the units of population to be sampled but groupings of those units. It is the latter groupings or aggregation of population units that are known as clusters. In a sense, cluster sampling is always a multi-stage approach, because one always samples clusters first, and then something else – either further clusters or population units – is sampled.	Bryman (2012)

Source: (Researcher)

For purposes of this study, the systematic sample method was implemented.

As the sampling methodology was chosen, an exploration of what it entailed was considered. Systematic sampling involves units that have been chosen directly from the sampling frame at regular intervals (Bryman and Saunders *et al.*, 2012). The core reason for going with this method of sampling was that it best suited the aims and objectives of testing this study – moreover, it was convenient, less costly and time-consuming.

4.5 QUESTIONNAIRE/INSTRUMENT DESIGN

Data collection instrument is an administered test to a control group detailed by Bryman (2012). According to Ritchie, Lewis, Nicholls and Ormston (2013:), it involves “fieldwork materials for in-depth interviews and focus groups”. Kumar (2014) further adds on by stipulating that “the interview guide is a research tool that is used to collect data in this design”. There are various types of data collection instruments, namely participant, non-participant observation, face-to-face

interviews, collective administration, focus groups, mailed data collection, online data collection, and telephone data collection.

With the intention of meeting the aims and objectives of this quantitative study, the researcher elected to adopt the online data collection, which will now be discussed in detail to show how its implementation has given the study rich and useful data.

According to Bryman (2012), online data collection involves “surveys that can be administered by email and via the Web”. In the case of the former, the questionnaire is sent via email to a respondent, whereas with a Web survey, the respondent is directed to a website in order to answer a questionnaire. He further states that “there has been a tendency for email surveys to be employed in relation to smaller, more homogeneous on-line user groups, whereas Web surveys have been used to study large groups of on-line users”. Kumar (2014) further discusses this by declaring that “online surveys have become reasonably common in collecting data and in some situation, its analysis”.

For purposes of testing the stated variables, a 5-point Likert scale was adopted, with 1 representing strongly agree, leading to 5 representing strongly disagree. The 5-point Likert scale was considered due to other similar research papers utilising the tool. The questionnaire was divided into sections A and B. Section A was focused on attaining the respondents’ biographical information, whereas section B enquired on the study’s model and was measured as follows:

Table 9: Variable Measuring Instruments Table

Selected Variable	Measuring instruments
Corporate Philanthropy	3
Social Identity	6
Brand Fetish	6

Luxury Brand Purchase Intention	6
Buying Luxury Brands	5

Responses to the distributed questionnaire were analysed using Structural Equation Model “SEM”, which was relevant when employing the Likert scale as a source of measurement. Qureshi and Kang (2015) explained SEM as a multivariate statistical technique, used when studying relationships between latent variables (or constructs) and observed variables that make up a model. This tool measures the primary latent constructs identified by factor analysis, and evaluating the paths of the hypothesised relationships between constructs (Nusair and Hua, 2010). He, Gai, Wu and Wan (2012) jointly add onto the authors above by declaring that this mechanism tests causal relationship among constructs as well as measuring the errors that might result.

Table 10: Advantages of SEM

Advantages	Author
It permits for the estimation of a series and various regression equations concurrently.	(Nusair and Hua, 2010)
It is able to integrate latent variables into the analysis, and considers measurement errors in the approximation development.	(Hair <i>et al.</i> , 1998, Nusair and Hua, 2010)
It creates measurement models as well as structural models in order to report complex behavioural associations.	(Nusair, Hua, Washington, Karlaftis and Mannering, 2010; 2003).

Source (Researcher)

4.6 DATA COLLECTION TECHNIQUE AND PROCEDURE

A research data collection instrument structure, according to various authors, has multiple variants. However, Bryman (2012) discusses it as “the administration of an interview schedule by an interviewer. The aim is for all interviewees to be given exactly the same context of questioning. The goal of the style of interviewing is to ensure that interviewees’ replies can be aggregated and this can be achieved reliably only if those replies are in response to identical cues”. There are numerous data collection instrument structures that further expand on the explanations above, but this study only focused on three – those being unstructured, semi-structured and fully structured data collection instruments. From these, this study adopted the fully structured interview approach.

A fully structured interview approach, according to Kumar (2012), involves the researcher asking a set of predetermined questions, “using the same wording and order of questions as specified in the interview schedule”.

The objective of doing this study was to accurately test all the positive variables and in so doing, the researcher first rolled out a pilot questionnaire to 20 identified individuals that met the set population criteria. This was done in order to test and analyse that what the respondents would be asked would be clearly understood, thus eliminating non-validity and reliability of the end results.

As a systematic sample approach was decided upon, individuals that fell within the target population received an email from an anonymous source describing what the core objective of the communication was a week before releasing the directions that would lead them to the set questionnaires for their responses. As people are consistently busy and might not get the chance to either read all their mails or respond to them, a reminder email was sent a week later prompting them to complete the questionnaire.

4.7 DATA ANALYSIS

Research data processing, according to Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2012), is the process of “coding data at different scales of extent and entering into computer for analysis using numerical codes”. Kumar (2014) extends this notion by declaring that “you need to subject your data to a number of procedures that constitute the core of data processing”.

For purposes of concluding a quantitative study, data coding, entry into computer as well as cleaning was considered and explained in detail below.

Data coding as per the three authors involves “the process of assigning numerical values to different categories of responses to a question for the purpose of analysing them; answers captured from the interview have to be examined and then categorised, so that each person’s answer can be aggregated with other respondents’ answers to a certain question. A number will then be allocated to each category of answers, so that the answers can then be entered into a computer database and analysed quantitatively – Bryman, Kumar, Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2012; 2014).

Data entry into computer involving “both quantitative and categorical information go through a process that is primarily aimed at transforming the information into numerical values, called codes, so that the information can be easily analysed, either manually or by computer, and once your data has been coded, you can enter them into your computer” – Saunders, Lewis, Thornhill and Kumar (2012; 2014). The above authors, along with Leedy and Ormrod (2012), further state that data cleaning is “cross-tabulations analysis of two variables, usually independent and dependent, to determine if there is a relationship between them. The subcategories of both the variables are cross-tabulated to ascertain if a relationship exists between them. Usually, the absolute number of respondents in each cell, and the row and column percentages, give you a reasonably good idea as to the possible association and a chi-square test can be used to compare the relative frequencies of people in various categories; for instance, we might discover that more boys than girls live north of Main Street, but that more girls than boys live south of Main Street”.

The data for the study was extracted from responses that had been recorded on an Excel spreadsheet for purposes of coding before the process of interpretation took place. The AMOS 24 and SPSS 24 tools were adapted to gain understanding of the results of each variable. The structural equation modelling (SEM) approach was utilised for data analysis purposes where it was conducted in a two-step process, the first being the confirmatory factor analysis and the second being the path/structural modelling stage. The SEM process is explored in full detail in the chapter that follows.

4.8 VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY

“The concept of reliability in relation to a research instrument has a similar meaning: if a research tool is consistent and stable, hence predictable and accurate, it is said to be reliable”, Kumar (2014:215). Bryman (2012:390) says “the greater the degree of consistency and stability in an instrument, the greater its reliability”. Therefore, “reliability is the consistency with which a measuring instrument yields a certain, consistent result when the entity being measured hasn’t changed”, Leedy and Ormrod (2014:93). The authors suggest that a quantitative researcher replicating ethnographic research needs to adopt a similar social role to that adopted by the original researcher. Otherwise, what a researcher conducting a replication sees and hears will not be comparable to the original research.

On the other hand, research validity in Bryman’s (2012) work is internal validity – whether there is a good match between researchers’ observations and the theoretical ideas they develop. Kumar and Leedy and Ormrod (2014:91) say that “validity is the ability of an instrument to measure what it is designed to measure”.

In the quest to conclude and render a quantitative study valid and reliable, there are four main validating research types that should be considered – measuring, internal, external and ecological validity. These will now be discussed in detail below.

Measuring validity, according to Bryman (2012), involves “the establishment of the credibility of findings both ensuring that research is carried out according to the canons of good practice and submitting research findings to the members of the social world who were studies for confirmation that the investigator has correctly understood that social world”. Kumar (2014) then says that construct validity is based upon statistical procedures. It is determined by ascertaining the contribution of each construct to the total variance observed in a phenomenon”. Leedy and Ormrod (2014) also have their point in saying that it “is the extent to which an instrument measures a characteristic that cannot be directly observed but is assumed to exist based on patterns in people’s behaviour”.

The purpose of conducting this study was to ensure that validity and reliability are obtained throughout. Neuman (2004) does, however, caution all researchers by stating that perfect reliability and validity are impossible to achieve. Nevertheless, the methodology that was used within this study negated that all the necessary accuracy measures were adopted and carried out.

4.8.1 Convergent validity

This process of validity is one that measures the construct that should be positively related to each other. According to Carlson and Herdman (2012), this form of validity “takes two measures that are supposed to be measuring the same construct and shows that they are related”. To see any form of correlation, a correlation coefficient should be adopted where a scale of -1 to 1 indicates a positive or negative correlation. To test convergent validity, confirmatory factor analysis and structural modelling were used to test the correlation values of the constructs.

4.8.2 Discriminant validity

Carlson and Herdman (2012) state that discriminant validity is a measure of constructs that are not related to each other. As the converse of convergent validity, the two measures are completely unrelated to each other. An example of it is if the scale produced a figure closer to zero, i.e. 0.04. For purposes of this study, as a further illustration, a test of brand fetish to brand tribalism could result in a scale of 0.11, which is an indication of no correlation. Whereas, if

correlation results in a scale less than 0.7, there is evidence of discriminant validity (Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994).

To assess discriminant validity for this study, Inter-construct Correlation Matrix was employed as well as Average Variance Extracted (AVE) and Shared Variance (SV) to check if the average variance extracted was greater than the highest shared variance.

4.9 RELIABILITY

It is important to note in this section that the reliability tools that were deliberated on for this study are those of Cronbach's alpha test (Cronbach α), the composite reliability test (CR) and average variance extracted (AVE) test. A detailed discussion on the tools utilised will follow in the chapter below.

4.10 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

When conducting research, ethical considerations are very important. This study carried out all the considerations pertaining to self-declaration, getting participant consent before conducting the study, ensuring complete privacy and ensuring that no participants were harmed.

Table 11: Ethical considerations above

Ethical Consideration	Definition	Author
Participant consent	The opportunity to be fully informed of the nature of the research and the implications of their participation at the outset. Further, the researcher has a signed record of consent if any concerns are subsequently raised by participants or others.	Bryman (2012)

Assurance not to harm respondents	To guard against consequences for research participants which can be predicted to be harmful and to consider carefully the possibility that the research experience may be a disturbing one. Social researcher should try to minimise disturbance both to subjects themselves and to the subjects' relationship with their environment.	Bryman (2012)
Privacy	Personal information concerning research participants should be kept confidential. In some cases, it may be necessary to decide whether it is proper or appropriate to record certain kinds of sensitive information.	Bryman (2012)

Source (Researcher)

4.11 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The study was conducted in the Gauteng metropolitan areas as it was very convenient for the researcher. This of course resulted in knowing that the population outside of this area would be excluded. Further to that, a certain age group was studied, thus also indicating the exclusion of those that might meet the stipulated population criteria but are not within the age chosen.

4.12 SUMMARY OF CHAPTER 4

The chapter above outlined and discussed research strategy, design, data analyses methodologies to be adopted, and described the selected target market and demographics. Lastly, the study limitations, validity and ethical considerations were also discussed and considered.

CHAPTER 5: DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter (chapter 3), provided the research methodology for this study. This chapter (chapter 4), discussed the data analysis approach where a number of tests were conducted. These tests included the demographic data, main analysis technique, and structural equation modelling, which was explored in great detail in chapter 3. Confirmatory factor analysis and structural modelling was also conducted in this chapter. For reliability checks, the Cronbach's alpha (α) test and the Composite reliability (CR) test were conducted. Descriptive analysis, the inter-construct correlation matrix as well as hypothesis testing were also conducted. These tests were followed by a series of discussions.

5.2 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

The premise of embarking on an enquiry should always be to describe the path followed through a comprehensive manner. Descriptive statistics is the examination of configurations which enable one to put together and show data which highlights existing relationships or individualities (Santy and Kreale, 1998). Burns and Bush (2006) further describe it as a process of quantitative analysis brought about by the study's sample. To this, it can be said that descriptive analysis enables the researcher to minimise results based on probability indicators, thus creating an understanding of the information gathered from the sample.

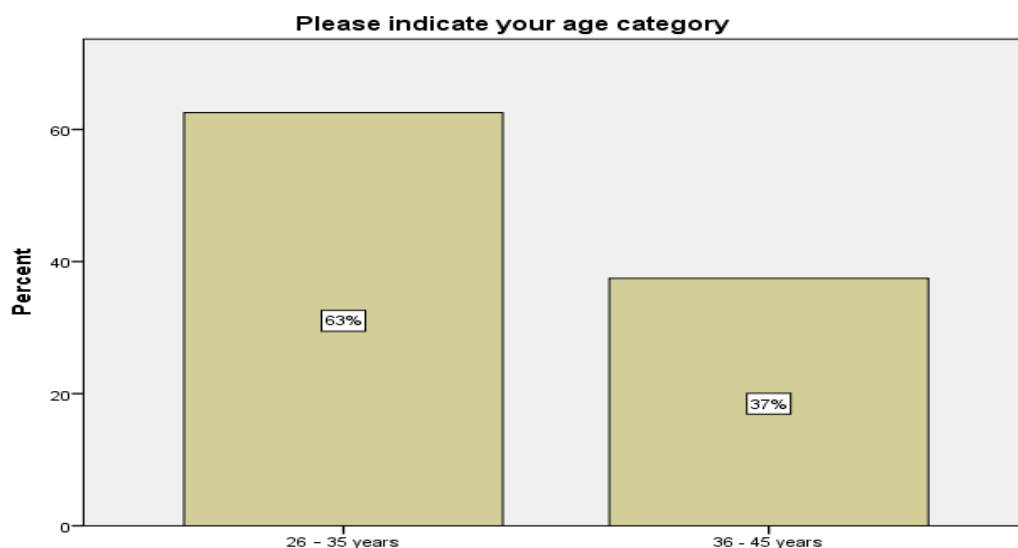
The section below commences with the demographic results depicted from the study and followed by further analysis and discussion:

Figure 7: Gender distribution



As indicated in the gender bar graph, males represented 38% of the total participants of the study. On the other hand, females accounted for 62% of the total participants. The total number of participants was 267. The graph that follows illustrates the participants' age.

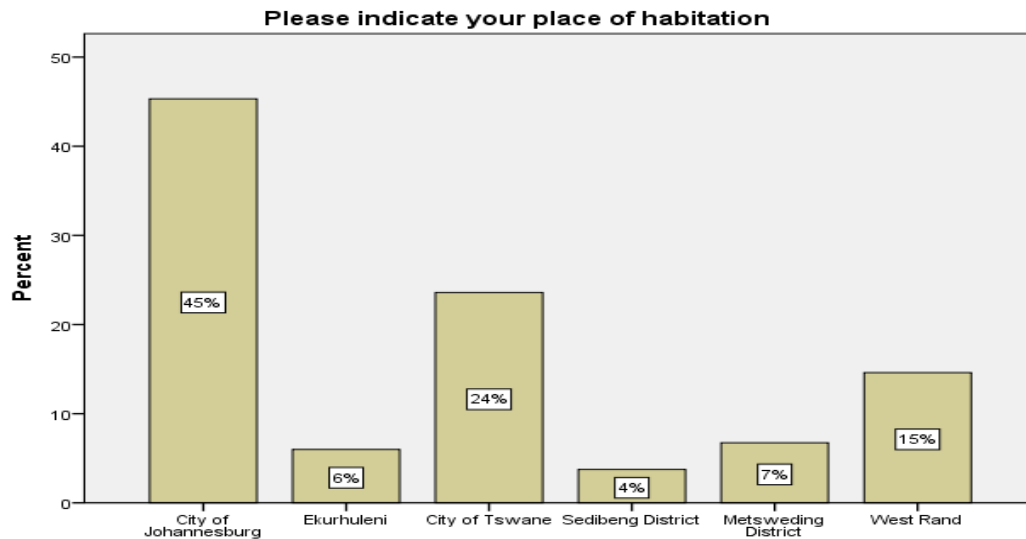
Figure 8: Age distribution



As indicated in the age bar graph, 26- to 35-year-olds represented 63% of the total participants of the study. The other age group involved in the study was 36- to 45-year-olds. This group

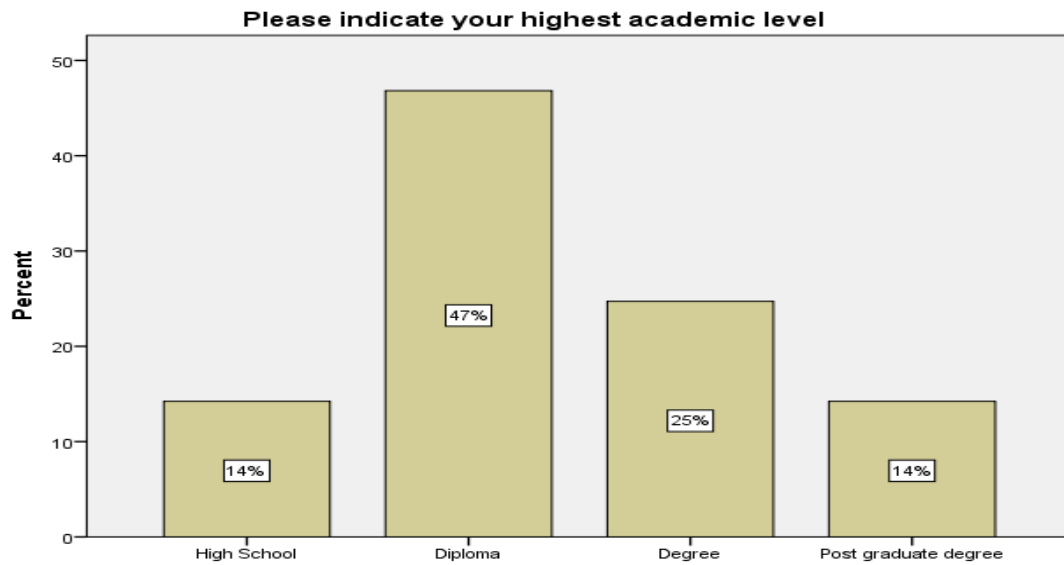
represented 37% of all the participants. The graph that follows illustrates where the participants resided.

Figure 9: Place of habitation



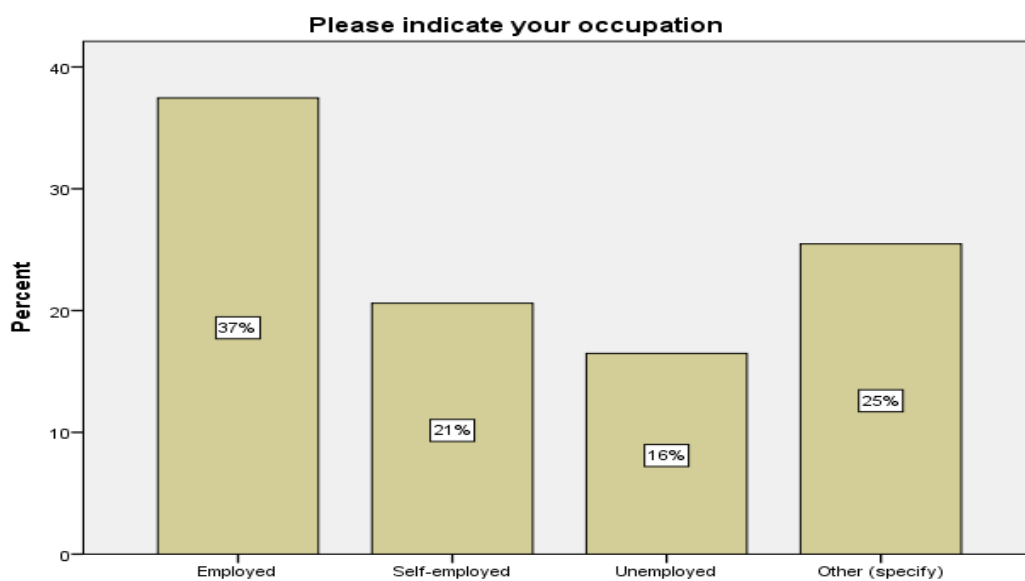
As seen in the bar graph illustrating place of habitation, almost half of all the respondents resided in the City of Johannesburg as indicated by 45%. This was followed by residents of the City of Tshwane indicated by 24%, followed by 15% that represented West Rand. Additionally, Metsweding represented 7% of the participants. Last, 6% and 4% came from the Ekurhuleni and Sedibeng districts.

Figure 10: Highest Academic Level



As observed in the “highest academic level” graph, most of the respondents which made up 47% stated that they were holders of diplomas while 25% stated that they were holders of degrees. The two smallest groups were those with high school and post graduate degrees, each represented by 14%.

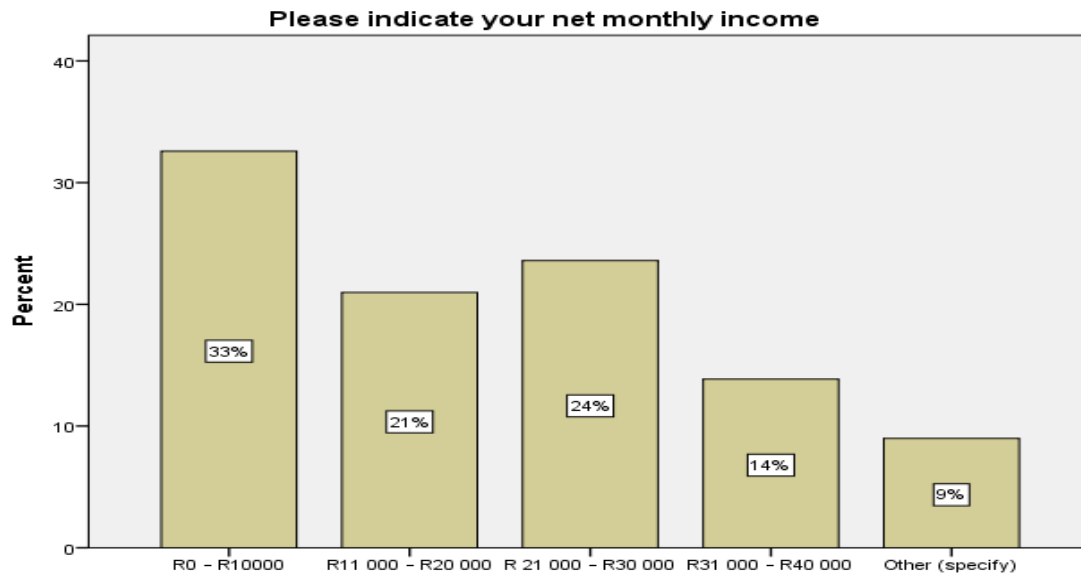
Figure 11: Occupation



As indicated in figure 12, employed respondents accounted for the largest single group of respondents as indicated by 37%; “other” respondents accounted for 25% of the total sample.

Self-employed participants represented 21%, while unemployed represented the 16% that was sampled. The following section presents the graph presents the monthly income of the participants.

Figure 12: Net monthly income



As indicated in the “net monthly income” graph most of the participants represented the R0 to R10 000 category as indicated by 33%, while those that represented the R21 000 to R30 000 category were the second largest group as indicated by 24%. The last three groups were those that earned a net income of R11 000 to R20 000, R31 000 to R40 000 and “other” (amounts varied). These groups were represented by 21%, 14% and 9% respectively.

Structural Equation Modelling Approach

Structural equation modelling (SEM) was utilised in this research for the purpose of analysing data. SEM has recently become a well-regarded statistical method to test theory in several fields of research (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, Black, Schumacker, Lomax, Nusair and Hua, 1998; 2004; 2010). SEM was applied so as to test the hypothesised relationships of the research model (Liao and Hsieh, 2013). Qureshi and Kang (2015) defined structural equation modelling as a multivariate statistical approach, primarily engaged when studying relationships between latent variables (or constructs) and observed variables that constitute a model. SEM is a technique of multivariate statistical analysis, with the ability to measure the underlying latent constructs

identified by factor analysis, and evaluating the paths of the hypothesised relationships between the constructs (Nusair and Hua, 2010). The sections that follow will cover the two-part process of SEM, the confirmatory factor analysis stage and the structural/path modelling stage. Model fit indices that were used to assess model fit are presented in the section that follows.

Chi-square (CMIN/DF)

The chi-square is a technique adopted for examining the general fit of the model. This value must be below 3 according to (Chinomona, 2011).

Goodness of Fit Index (GFI)

The goodness of fit index measures the extent in which the hypothesised model and the observed covariance matrix match each other. This index has to range from 0 and 1, with a cutoff value of 0.9 according to (Baumgartner and Hombur, 1996).

Normed Fit Index (NFI)

The normed fit index assesses the difference between the chi-squared of the postulated model and the chi-squared value of the unacceptable model. This index must be greater than 0.9 according to (Bentler and Bonett, 1980).

Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI)

The Tucker-Lewis Index uses less complex models and is well known for dealing with the issue of sample size associated with normative fit index. This index must meet or exceed 0.9 (Hooper, Coughlan and Mullen, 2008).

Incremental Fit Index (IFI)

The incremental Fit Index is meant to correct the issue of frugality and sample size related to normative fit index where the value must meet or exceed 0.9 according to (Bollen, 1989).

Comparative Fit Index (CFI)

The comparative fit index posits that all latent variables do not match and compares the sample covariance matrix with the null model. This value is acceptable when it reaches or does not go over 0.9 according to (Hooper *et al.*, 2008).

Relative Fit Index (RFI)

The relative fit index compares the chi-square for the theorised model to one from a “null”, or “baseline” model. The value is acceptable at 0.9 and above as suggested by (McDonald and Ho, 2002).

Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA)

The root mean square error of approximation highlights the extent to which a model, with indefinite but ideal chosen parameter estimates, would fit the populations’ covariance matrix (Byrne, 1998). The value must fall within 0.05 and 0.08 according to (Byrne, 1998).

Reliability and Validity

The table below presents the accuracy analysis statistics.

Table 12: Accuracy Analysis Statistics

Research Construct		Descriptive Statistics				Cronbach’s Test		C.R. Value	Highest Shared Variance	Factor Loading
		Mean Value		Standard Deviation		Item-total	α value			
CP	CP1	4.004	3.772	0.816	0.878	0.560	0.730	0.711	0.338	0.836
	CP2	3.521		0.967		0.501				0.507
	CP3	3.790		0.850		0.608				0.653
SI	SI1	3.974	3.926	0.773	0.845	0.547	0.776	0.789	0.491	0.670
	SI2	4.034		0.777		0.678				0.758
	SI3	3.655		1.015		0.481				0.587
	SI4	3.614		1.123		0.548				0.691
	SI5	4.037		0.693		0.450				0.299
	SI6	4.243		0.691		0.518				0.381

BF	BF1	4.255	3.974	0.787	0.831	0.663	0.838	0.756	0.491	0.351
	BF2	4.270		0.732		0.636				0.389
	BF3	4.262		0.799		0.589				0.312
	BF4	3.629		0.885		0.567				0.718
	BF5	3.745		0.869		0.578				0.783
	BF6	3.685		0.917		0.660				0.859
LHB	LHB1	3.966	3.753	0.911	0.896	0.636	0.907	0.911	0.679	0.630
	LHB2	3.798		0.899		0.817				0.840
	LHB3	3.678		0.876		0.814				0.869
	LHB4	3.682		0.930		0.747				0.828
	LHB5	3.640		0.862		0.830				0.915
BT	BT1	3.307	3.778	1.063	0.860	0.695	0.898	0.905	0.679	0.732
	BT2	4.210		0.762		0.647				0.713
	BT3	3.820		0.821		0.855				0.895
	BT4	3.779		0.799		0.816				0.853
	BT5	3.775		0.855		0.779				0.844
LBPI	LBPI1	3.809	3.958	0.999	0.850	0.578	0.875	0.922	0.491	0.931
	LBPI2	4.251		0.761		0.711				0.744
	LBPI3	4.139		0.804		0.813				0.885
	LBPI4	4.176		0.768		0.833				0.906
	LBPI5	4.079		0.749		0.812				0.890
	LBPI6	3.296		1.022		0.468				0.469
Research Construct		Descriptive Statistics				Cronbach's Test		C.R. Value	Highest Shared Variance	Factor Loading
		Mean Value		Standard Deviation		Item-total	α value			
CP	CP1	4.004	3.772	0.816	0.878	0.560	0.730	0.711	0.338	0.836
	CP2	3.521		0.967		0.501				0.507
	CP3	3.790		0.850		0.608				0.653
SI	SI1	3.974	3.926	0.773	0.845	0.547	0.776	0.789	0.491	0.670
	SI2	4.034		0.777		0.678				0.758
	SI3	3.655		1.015		0.481				0.587
	SI4	3.614		1.123		0.548				0.691
	SI5	4.037		0.693		0.450				0.299
	SI6	4.243		0.691		0.518				0.381
BF	BF1	4.255	3.974	0.787	0.831	0.663	0.838	0.756	0.491	0.351
	BF2	4.270		0.732		0.636				0.389
	BF3	4.262		0.799		0.589				0.312
	BF4	3.629		0.885		0.567				0.718
	BF5	3.745		0.869		0.578				0.783

	BF6	3.685		0.917		0.660				0.859
	LBP2	3.798		0.899		0.817				0.840
	LBP3	3.678		0.876		0.814				0.869
	LBP4	3.682		0.930		0.747				0.828
	LBP5	3.640		0.862		0.830				0.915
BT	BT1	3.307	3.778	1.063	0.860	0.695	0.898	0.905	0.679	0.732
	BT2	4.210		0.762		0.647				0.713
	BT3	3.820		0.821		0.855				0.895
	BT4	3.779		0.799		0.816				0.853
	BT5	3.775		0.855		0.779				0.844
LBPI	LBPI1	3.809	3.958	0.999	0.850	0.578	0.875	0.922	0.491	0.931
	LBPI2	4.251		0.761		0.711				0.744
	LBPI3	4.139		0.804		0.813				0.885
	LBPI4	4.176		0.768		0.833				0.906
	LBPI5	4.079		0.749		0.812				0.890
	LBPI6	3.296		1.022		0.468				0.469

Key: CP: Corporate Philanthropy, SI: Social Identity, BF: Brand Fetish, LBPI: Luxury Brand Purchase Intention, LHB: Luxury Housing Brand, BT: Brand Tribalism

As indicated in the accuracy analysis table, all the variables: Corporate Philanthropy (CP), Social Identity (SI), Brand Fetish (BF), Luxury Brand Purchase Intention (LBPI), Luxury Housing Brand (LHB), Brand Tribalism (BT) met all the reliability and validity requirements for an acceptable research model. Most of the mean values ranged from 3.00 to 4.00, which meant that the data was evenly distributed. This was similar to the standard deviation values, which all ranged from -2 to 2, also confirming even distribution of data. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient for all the above mentioned variables reached the required 0.6 as they ranged from 0.730 to 0.922. In addition, the composite reliability values also reached the required threshold of 0.6 since they ranged from 0.711 to 0.911. As for the item to total values and factor loadings, the values were mostly above 0.5. The composite reliability calculation is presented in the following table.

Table 13: Composite Reliability

Standardised regression Estimates (all variables and instruments included)							
				Composite reliability (CR)			
				$(\sum \lambda Y_i)^2$	summation of error terms		$CR\eta = (\sum \lambda y_i)^2 / [(\sum \lambda y_i)^2 + (\sum \epsilon_i)]$
					ϵ_i	$\sum \epsilon_i$	
CP	<---	CP1	0.836	3.984	0.301	1.618	0.711
	<---	CP2	0.507		0.743		
	<---	CP3	0.653		0.574		

SI	<---	SI1	0.670	11.465	0.551	3.065	0.789
	<---	SI2	0.758		0.425		
	<---	SI3	0.587		0.655		
	<---	SI4	0.691		0.523		
	<---	SI5	0.299		0.911		
	<---	SI6	0.381		0.855		
BF	<---	BF1	0.351	11.642	0.877	3.762	0.756
	<---	BF2	0.389		0.849		
	<---	BF3	0.312		0.903		
	<---	BF4	0.718		0.484		
	<---	BF5	0.783		0.387		
	<---	BF6	0.859		0.262		
LHB	<---	LHB1	0.630	16.6627	0.603	1.620	0.911
	<---	LHB2	0.840		0.294		
	<---	LHB3	0.869		0.245		
	<---	LHB4	0.828		0.314		
	<---	LHB5	0.915		0.163		
BT	<---	BT1	0.732	16.2974	0.464	1.715	0.905
	<---	BT2	0.713		0.492		
	<---	BT3	0.895		0.199		
	<---	BT4	0.853		0.272		
	<---	BT5	0.844		0.288		
LBPI	<---	LBPI1	0.931	23.2806	0.133	1.964	0.922
	<---	LBPI2	0.744		0.446		
	<---	LBPI3	0.885		0.217		
	<---	LBPI4	0.906		0.179		
	<---	LBPI5	0.890		0.208		
	<---	LBPI6	0.469		0.780		
Standardised regression Estimates (all variables and instruments included)							
				Composite reliability (CR)			
				$(\sum \lambda Y_i)^2$	summation of error terms		$CR\eta=(\sum \lambda y_i)^2/[(\sum \lambda y_i)^2+(\sum \epsilon_i)]$
					$\sum \epsilon_i$	$\sum \epsilon_i$	CR
CP	<---	CP1	0.836	3.984	0.301	1.618	0.711
	<---	CP2	0.507		0.743		
	<---	CP3	0.653		0.574		
SI	<---	SI1	0.670	11.465	0.551	3.065	0.789
	<---	SI2	0.758		0.425		
	<---	SI3	0.587		0.655		
	<---	SI4	0.691		0.523		
	<---	SI5	0.299		0.911		
	<---	SI6	0.381		0.855		

BF	<---	BF1	0.351	11.642	0.877	3.762	0.756
	<---	BF2	0.389		0.849		
	<---	BF3	0.312		0.903		
	<---	BF4	0.718		0.484		
	<---	BF5	0.783		0.387		
	<---	BF6	0.859		0.262		
	<---	LBP2	0.840		0.294		
	<---	LBP3	0.869		0.245		
	<---	LBP4	0.828		0.314		
	<---	LBP5	0.915		0.163		
BT	<---	BT1	0.732	16.2974	0.464	1.715	0.905
	<---	BT2	0.713		0.492		
	<---	BT3	0.895		0.199		
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	<---	LBPI2	0.744		0.446		
	<---	LBPI3	0.885		0.217		
	<---	LBPI4	0.906		0.179		
	<---	LBPI5	0.890		0.208		
	<---	LBPI6	0.469		0.780		

Key: CP: Corporate Philanthropy, SI: Social Identity, BF: Brand Fetish, LBPI: Luxury Brand Purchase Intention, LHB: Luxury Housing Brand BT: Brand Tribalism

Composite Reliability (CR) Test

According to Yang and Lai (2010) in reliability analysis, an acceptable CR value must exceed 0.7. The internal reliability of each construct was also evaluated using the Composite Reliability (CR) index test. It is calculated using the following formula:

$$(CR): CR_{\eta} = (\sum \lambda_{yi})^2 / [(\sum \lambda_{yi})^2 + (\sum \epsilon_i)]$$

Composite Reliability = (square of the summation of the factor loadings) / {(square of the summation of the factor loadings) + (summation of error variances)}.

Average Value Extracted (AVE) Test

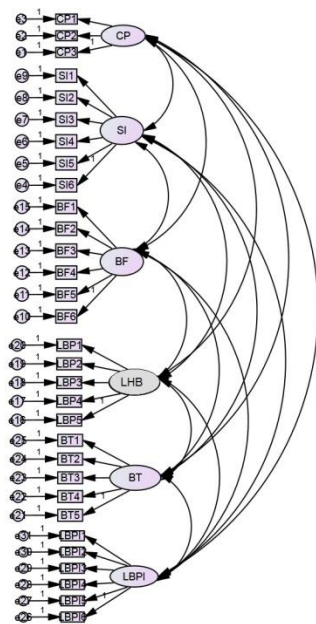
Average variance extracted (AVE) is the third reliability test. Malhotra (2010:725) defines AVE as the variance in the indicators or observed variables that are explained by the latent construct. A value of 0.40 or higher indicates a satisfactory measure (Anderson and Gerbing 1988:411). It is calculated as the summation of the squared factor loadings divided by the sum of the

summation of the squared factor loadings and summation of error variances (Bewick, Cheek and Ball 2004:131). The formula below was applied when examining AVE.

$$(AVE): V_{\eta} = \Sigma \lambda_{yi}^2 / (\Sigma \lambda_{yi}^2 + \Sigma \epsilon_i)$$

AVE = summation of the squared of factor loadings / {(summation of the squared of factor loadings) + (summation of error variances)}.

Figure 13: Confirmatory Factor Analysis



Key: CP: Corporate Philanthropy, SI: Social Identity, BF: Brand Fetish, LBPI: Luxury Brand Purchase Intention, LHB: Luxury House Brand, BT: Brand Tribalism

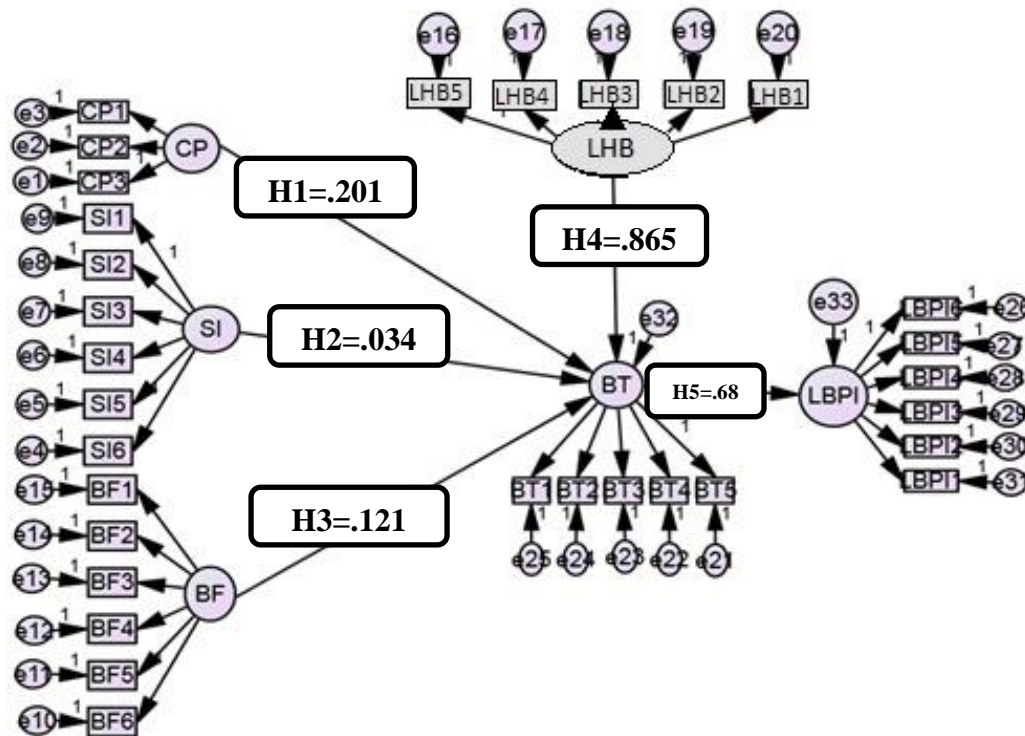
Table 14: Model Fit Results

CMIN/DF	GFI	NFI	RFI	IFI	TLI	CFI	RMSEA
1.347	0.904	0.928	0.902	0.98	0.973	0.98	0.036

The model fit indices presented in the table above met all the required thresholds as stated in chapter 3. The chi-square (cmin/df) was lower than 3, therefore acceptable, while the Goodness of Fit Index (GFI) and the Normative Fit Index (NFI) exceed the recommended 0.9 threshold. In addition, the Relative Fit Index (RFI), the Incremental Fit Index (IFI) and the Tucker Lewis Fix

(TLI) all exceed the required 0.9 as suggested by the literature in chapter 3. Lastly, the Comparative Fit Index (CFI) and the root mean square error approximation (RMSEA) also met the required threshold where the former exceeded 0.9 and the latter was lower than 0.06.

Figure 14: Structural Model



Key: CP: Corporate Philanthropy, SI: Social Identity, BF: Brand Fetish, LBPI: Luxury Brand Purchase Intention, LHB: Luxury Housing Brand, BT: Brand Tribalism

Table 15: Hypothesis Table

Hypothesised Relationship	Estimate	P Value	Result
CP and BT	0.201	0.01	Supported and significant
SI and BT	0.034	0.400	Insignificant
BF and BT	0.121	0.003	Supported and significant
LHB and BT	0.865	0.01	Supported and significant
BT and LBPI	0.685	0.01	Supported and significant

Key: CP: Corporate Philanthropy, SI: Social Identity, BF: Brand Fetish, LBPI: Luxury Brand Purchase Intention, LHB: Luxury Housing Brand, BT: Brand Tribalism

Level of significance: (p value < 0.01)

5.3 HYPOTHESIS TESTING

H1: Corporate Philanthropy (CP) has a positive influence on Brand Tribalism (BT)

The path coefficient value for hypothesis 1 is 0.201, which is an indication of a strong association and relationship between corporate philanthropy and brand tribalism. The P value indicates a much lower than 0.01 level of confidence, which, therefore, means that the hypothesis is supported and significant.

H2: Social Identity (SI) does not have a positive influence on Brand Tribalism (BT)

This relationship was observed to be insignificant as indicated by the path coefficient of 0.034 as well as the P value of 0.400 therefore, indicating that the hypothesis does not hold.

H3: Brand Fetish (BF) has a positive influence on Brand Tribalism (BT)

The results of structural equation model analysis revealed that brand fetish has a significant impact on brand tribalism as indicated by a path coefficient of 0.121 and a P value of 0.003.

H4: Luxury Housing Brand (LHB) has a positive influence on Brand Tribalism (BT)

The path coefficient value for this hypothesis is 0.865. The P value indicates a much lesser than 0.01 level of confidence, which, therefore, means that the hypothesis is supported and significant.

H5: Brand Tribalism (BT) has a positive influence on Luxury Brand Purchase Intention (LBPI)

The path coefficient value for hypothesis 5 is 0.685. The P value indicates a lower than 0.01 level of confidence, which, therefore, means that the hypothesis is supported and significant.

5.4 THE INTER-CONSTRUCT CORRELATION MATRIX

The inter-construct correlation matrix was utilised to determine discriminant validity of the research constructs. Correlations among latent constructs were evaluated in order to see if they were lower than 1.0. A value lower than 0.7 for research constructs is recommended to confirm discriminant validity (Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994). The values for the constructs presented in the table ranged from 0.401 and 0.701. The following table illustrates the relationships among constructs.

Table 16: Correlations

Correlations						
	CP	SI	BF	LBP	BT	LBPI
CP	1					
SI	.581**	1				
BF	.445**	.701**	1			
LHB	.401**	.479**	.634**	1		
BT	.461**	.490**	.600**	.824**	1	
LBPI	.571**	.540**	.555**	.575**	.701**	1
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).						

Key: CP: Corporate Philanthropy, SI: Social Identity, BF: Brand Fetish, LBPI: Luxury Brand Purchase Intention, LBP: Luxury Brand Preference, BT: Brand Tribalism

5.5 INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS

5.5.1 Corporate Philanthropy (CP) and Brand Tribalism (BT)

Corporate Philanthropy (CP) directly and positively influences brand tribalism (BT). This relationship was both supported and significant. The path coefficient value for hypothesis 1 is 0.201, which is an indication of a strong association and relationship between corporate philanthropy and brand tribalism. The P value indicates a much lower than 0.01 level of confidence, which, therefore, means that the hypothesis is supported and significant. Moreover, this finding suggested that for brand tribalism to occur it is necessary for the existence of corporate philanthropy to occur, implying that the more that corporations engage in philanthropic activities, the more that brand tribalism is achieved.

From the theoretical explorations conducted, the finding above is indorsed by Bhattachayar et al (2016) study, where it was declared that brand tribes influence each other's purchase behaviour particularly when the brand itself indorses social development. This therefore, solidifies the relationship between corporate philanthropy and brand tribalism as more than one study has resulted in a significant relationship.

5.5.2 Social Identity (SI) and Brand Tribalism (BT)

Social Identity (SI) does not have an influence on brand tribalism (BT). This relationship was not supported completely. This relationship was observed to be insignificant as indicated by the path coefficient of 0.034 as well as the P value of 0.400.

The study's findings have pointed out the differences between available theoretical explorations. In chapter 2 of this study, numerous investigations highlighted that people purchase products and services due to the need to be part of a particular group. The theory further stated that, products and services were bought in order for shred experiences to occur. With the current finding being different from the theory, it could be that the test was conducted in a different country and between individuals that were of different ages amongst others.

5.5.3 Brand Fetish (BF) and Brand Tribalism (BT)

Brand Fetish (BF) directly and positively influences brand tribalism (BT). The results of structural equation model analysis revealed that brand fetish positively influences brand tribalism and has a significant impact on brand tribalism as indicated by a path coefficient of 0.121 and a P value of 0.003. This suggested that brand fetishness was a significant requirement for brand tribalism to occur.

From the theoretical explorations conducted in chapter 2, the finding above is indirectly indorsed by O'Brien (2016:204) study, which stated that purchasing a product or service gives one an opportunity to connect with certain groups. This however is a narrow exploration as studies on this relationship were very challenging to come across.

5.5.4 Luxury Housing Brand (LHB) and Brand Tribalism (BT)

Luxury housing brand preference (LHB) directly and positively influences brand tribalism (BT). This relationship was both supported and significant. The path coefficient value for hypothesis 4 is 0.865, which is an indication of a strong association and relationship between luxury housing brand and brand tribalism. The P value indicates a much lesser than 0.01 level of confidence, which, therefore, means that the hypothesis is supported and significant. Moreover, this suggested that the higher the luxury housing brand, the higher the brand tribalism.

5.5.5 Brand Tribalism (BT) and Luxury Brand Purchase Intention (LBPI)

Brand Tribalism (BT) directly and positively influences Luxury brand purchase intention (LBPI). This relationship was both supported and significant. The path coefficient value for hypothesis 5 is 0.685, which is an indication of a strong association and relationship between brand tribalism and luxury brand purchase intention. The P value indicates a lower than 0.01 level of confidence, which, therefore, means that the hypothesis is supported and significant. Moreover, this suggested that for there to be luxury brand purchase intention it is necessary for brand tribalism to exist.

Theory derived from chapter 2, purports that individual consumption decisions are constantly affected cultural values and standards. Furthermore, social influences are important when it comes to purchasing luxury items as consumer purchase intention is based on the need to always create a favourable social image. This summary is a result of combined common findings from numerous investigations. Studies on luxury purchase intention were numerous however, obtaining studies testing the relationship between brand tribalism and luxury brand purchase intention became a challenge. One of the reasons could be that, brand tribalism is a relatively new study within the field of marketing. From this, further research by others should be conducted in order to get different perspectives.

5.6 SUMMARY OF CHAPTER 5

In this chapter, the data analysis approach was discussed. In addition, reliability and validity tests were conducted on the data. Most notably, accuracy analysis statistics were run that included

item to total and factor loadings. The main analysis approach was the SEM technique in which confirmatory factor analysis and structural modelling were conducted. Model fit checks were also conducted in the analysis. After results of SEM were obtained a discussion followed which included estimates, p values as well as statements on whether the hypotheses were supported or not. The discussion also explored the significance of the proposed relationships. Descriptive analysis was conducted on variables such as gender, age, habitation, academic level and occupation of respondents. The chapter (chapter 6) section provides conclusions, recommendations, implications as well as suggestions for future research.

CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS, LIMITATIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter, (chapter 5), provided the research analysis and interpretation for the study. This section of the study focuses on the findings, limitations, implications, future research as well as a summation of the study as a whole. The objective behind the study was to explore how being part of a brand tribe, along with its dependent variables, could ultimately result in an individual preferring that specific product or service, thus leading to intentions of purchasing a home in the luxury brand market. Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) was applied to assess the proposed research model and hypothesis. The analytical results implied that, four (4) of the proposed hypothesis were supported and only one was not. The strongest influence observed between the relationships was that of luxury housing brand (LHB) on brand tribalism (BT) with the factor loading indicated by 0.865 (see table 15).

6.2 IMPLICATIONS

This research was aimed at studying the “new” marketing phenomenon of brand tribalism leading to luxury brand purchase intention within the South African metropolitan middle-class market. The implications of the study are meant to positively impact the South African consumer, marketing practitioners, academicians, luxury housing developers and housing government officials.

Academic implications would be to positively contribute towards the existing studies on corporate philanthropy, social identity, brand fetish and luxury housing brand on brand tribalism as well as brand tribalism on luxury brand purchase intention. Further examination by academics on this study is encouraged so as to expand the knowledge.

With regards to applying the current study’s findings onto everyday life – marketing practitioners could extensively benefit due to gaining knowledge on how best to influence and ensure luxury product purchase intention. This is demonstrated in the study by the positive

influence of the involvement of corporate philanthropy and brand fetish on brand tribes. In addition, existing theory highlights the importance of brand managers and practitioners forming beneficial relationships with their influential customers in order to provide a product and or service that will create everlasting relationship satisfy their needs and evolving along with the customer's daily lifestyle necessities.

Further to that, luxury housing developers can also use these results to ensure they positively influence purchase intention through establishing relationships with customers that have a great influence in brand tribes.

The result obtained in this study can also be utilised by housing government officials so as to gain an understanding of what a specific demographic is after, how they can then provide solutions for current and any foreseeable housing availability challenges in the country as well as how this market has the potential of increasingly positively influence the economy of the country.

6.3 LIMITATIONS

This research brought about numerous suggestions as indicated in the previous sections. This therefore provided some suggestions for future researchers due to the limitations that accompanied its roll out. Potential relationships that were not covered included those of luxury housing brand (LHB) and corporate philanthropy (CP), luxury housing brand (LHB) and brand fetish (BF), as well as that of luxury housing brand (LHB) and social identity (SI). Furthermore, future research could involve the use of the same model with additional variables that were not part of this study so as to establish whether findings would improve for the two relationships that were found to be insignificant (SI and BT/ BF and BT). It could also be suggested that other provinces be used as they would have different preferences and perceptions regarding luxury brand purchases. With further examination this could, potentially, ultimately lead to interesting findings.

Further limitations were those associated with the cost limitations that resulted in data being only collected in Metropolitan areas within Gauteng. Future research could be conducted somewhere else within South Africa or anywhere in the world which would then allow interesting findings which could be compared with the study's current results.

Another extension that could be explored could be that of the group being tested; in this study, only middle-class Gauteng residents were investigated. For future research, other groups or specific nationalities could be investigated to further contribute to the body of existing literature on the study at hand.

Current economic instability might have also affected individuals that were classified as "middle-class" so, in future; a study could be conducted where economic conditions of a country have stabilized thus, ensuring further comparison with the current study versus the new results that would have been obtained.

Lastly, South Africa is still deemed as a "third world" country so, it would be a great addition to the academic knowledge if data was also collected from a "first world" country and further compared with the current findings.

6.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

Recommendations for marketing practitioners, luxury housing developers, housing government officials and academicians are provided in this section of the study as well as conclusions for each of the proposed hypotheses of the study.

Based on the findings of the study, marketing practitioners are encouraged to create situations that allow for brand communities to be formed as it was observed that these communities lead to greater purchase intention of luxury brands. As for academicians, the conceptual model brought about new interesting relationships that produced usable findings. Therefore, it is recommended for academicians to utilise the proposed model for future research in different settings. Detailed discussions of the recommendation are provided in the following sections.

The first hypothesis (H1) established that corporate philanthropy (CP) and brand tribalism (BT) were directly and positively associated, which meant that for a brand to receive a following, the owners of that brand have to do what is considered “good” in the communities in which they provide services. It is therefore recommended that brand owners get involved in community engagements that uplift members of those communities. This would then provide an incentive for customers who reside in those communities to purchase the brands, since they feel that the brand cares about their livelihoods or those of their loved ones.

The second hypothesis (H2), social identity (SI) and brand tribalism (BT) indicated a non-existent relationship between the two. This suggested that customers do not need to feel that they can socially identify themselves with a particular brand they purchase for them to form part of a brand community. This meant that a brand does not have to be personally appealing to customers as well as fit well with the customer’s belief, attitudes and social life for a following of that brand to occur. Since this was not an insignificant relationship, it strongly suggested that merely identifying with society alone is not enough to develop a need to form part of a brand tribe. Therefore, it is recommended that marketers need not consider the relationship between the two when working on their brand products and services.

The third hypothesis (H3), brand fetish (BF), directly and positively influences brand tribalism (BT). There was, however, an indication that the support was not significant. This finding therefore suggested that consumers who are obsessed with particular brands might tend to gravitate towards each other, leading to the formation of brand tribes. This, then, meant that the more the customers are drawn towards a brand, the greater the chance that they would seek to become members of a brand community who share experiences. The recommendation for marketers is that they should further explore this relationship to find ways to encourage the market to be infatuated with their brands or products in order to ensure prolonged brand loyalty and shared product connections.

The fourth hypothesis (H4), luxury housing brand (LHB), directly and positively leads to brand tribalism (BT). This result implied that consumers who prefer luxury brands are most likely going to become attached greatly to those luxury brands, therefore forming a community of

luxury brand consumers. The suggestion for brand managers is that they should present their brands in a way that highlights exclusivity and luxury so as to attract and retain consumers who have a taste or preference for such brands. This would ultimately lead to more purchase intention of those brands as indicated in the following relationship.

The fifth and last hypothesis (H5) was related to the previous discussed hypothesis (H4), in that brand tribalism was associated with luxury brands. In this case it was observed that brand tribalism (BT) led to luxury brand purchase intention (LBPI). This, then, suggested that the more involved consumers are in a brand tribe the more they will be influenced to purchase luxury brands therefore leading to the intention of acquiring the product or service in question. The recommendation for luxury brand marketers is that they should be involved in the creation of brand tribes as they would influence members to purchase more of their luxury brands. Luxury brand purchase intention relies on its members of a brand being partially obsessed with the brand as indicated in the findings of the study.

6.5 CONCLUSION

The need to acquire luxury brands within South African as well as globally has seen an incline. One of the highlighted reasons is that consumption and the ability to consume such products and services has also increased as per the statistics discussed in chapter one of this study.

With the constant product and service evolution within South Africa is brought about by the major influence of customers being the core drivers of what should be in the market – based on what they currently expect as well as demand such as the need for brand owners and practitioners to be involved in social upliftment activities that better the country and economy. Meeting these demands then, results in changed perceptions, new following and future preference over other available similar products and services. This also leads to increased consumption and desire to consume that product and service with every “good” experienced that is communally shared through word of mouth, face to face interactions or the utilisation of social platforms. For the above reasons, the researcher deemed it necessary to conduct a study to understand the

influences on brand tribes – specifically within the luxury housing market and how that results in luxury housing brand purchase intention.

South African consumers are affected and influenced by numerous factors more personal than social when it comes to their purchasing acquisitions. For brands and marketing professionals to increase consumption and turn over, they need to consistently be alert of available studies that can further their knowledge of different demographic and personal consumer product and service needs.

In this study, the demographic information that was gathered was that of age, gender, where they live, level of education, employment status as well as economic stance. This test was administered to 267 individuals and revealed that, the larger group tested were individuals who were between the ages of 26 and 35. From that, the greater majority investigated were females who amounted to 62% of the study. Within the study, 47% of the respondents were indicated to have obtained diplomas and 37% were employed. This data is an affirmation to Stienler (2016) finding that individuals within the ages of 25 and 59 in the country make up a very big portion of an economically active group when compared to others.

From the study's findings, there is evidence that four conclusions can be deducted; firstly, corporate philanthropy has a positive influence on brand tribalism. Previous research on this study conducted by marketers and other fields, resulted in the conclusions that – the effects of corporate philanthropy could “vary but the most common effects found would be brand identification, brand loyalty, brand preference, customer satisfaction, and purchase intent” (Youn and Ryu: 2016). Secondly, that brand fetish has a positive influence on brand tribalism; thirdly, luxury housing brand has a positive influence on brand tribalism. Finally, brand tribalism has a positive influence on luxury housing purchase intention. For this final relationship, Ho (2016) confirms the finding by stating that in order to boost the business of luxury brands, actively considering CSR initiatives into the operational strategies might be a good idea to trigger consumers' purchase intention”.

6.6 SUMMARY OF CHAPTER 6

The purpose of this investigation was to determine whether there were positive relationships between the hypothesised variables. From that, a conceptual model was developed and tested which resulted in a majority of tested relationships being of significance with the exception of social identity being the one that is insignificant in its relationship with brand tribalism. From the results received, implications of the study were explored and the researcher was then able to make recommendations for future researchers looking at further testing the variables. The conclusion of this investigation made note of the future contribution made.

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Research Questionnaire

The University of the Witwatersrand
Graduate School of Business Administration
Cell: 079 600 9412
Email: nthbimokoena@icloud.com
Date: January 2017



Dear Sir/Madam

Questionnaire

I would firstly like to extend my gratitude for taking the time to assist me in gathering data for my academic investigation. The aim of this study is to explore the influence brand tribalism has on the luxury housing Brand amongst Gauteng middle-class metropolitan dwellers.

With that said, I am a student who would appreciate your assistance in taking the time to answer the questions that are set down below. Please be assured that this paper is purely for academic purposes; therefore, any information that you share will be deemed as confidential. Moreover, going through the paper should take you no more than 10 minutes.

Thanking you in advance.

Kind regards,

Nthabiseng Tsiu nee Mokoena

Consent Form for completing the research questionnaire

I, _____, acknowledge that the purpose of this enquiry has been fully explained to me. I also understand that the information that I give to the researcher will be used in the research report.

I further acknowledge that the researcher has promised me the following:

- ☐ That my participation in this research is voluntary
- ☐ That my personal details will remain anonymous throughout the study
- ☐ That I can refuse to answer any questions which I feel uncomfortable with

I agree / I do not agree to completing the questionnaire (please mark- X).

SECTION A: GENERAL INFORMATION

The section below is asking for your background information. Please indicate your answer by marking (X) on the appropriate box. Please be assured that the questions are strictly for research purpose only.

A1 Please indicate your gender

Male	
Female	

A2 Please indicate your place of habitation

City of Johannesburg	
Ekurhuleni	
City of Tshwane	
Sedibeng District	
Metsweding District	
West Rand	

A3 Please indicate your age category

26 – 35 years	
36 – 45 years	

A4 Please indicate your highest academic level

High School	
Diploma	
Degree	
Post Graduate Degree	
Other (specify)	

A5 Please indicate your occupation

Employed	
Self-employed	
Unemployed	
Other (specify)	

A6 Please indicate your net monthly income

R0 – R10000	
R11 000 – R20 000	
R 21 000 – R30 000	
R31 000 – R40 000	
Other (specify)	

A7 Please indicate where your house is positioned

Free Standing	
In a secured flat/ duplex	
In a security estate	
Other (specify)	

SECTION B:

“Brand tribalism” refers to a group of individuals who have the same brand likes and collectively take action. Through this, some form of satisfaction is derived from the shared experience of owning a brand with others, thus leading to purchase intention.

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statement by making a mark (X) on the corresponding number in the 5-point Likert scale below:

1. Corporate Philanthropy

Please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with each statement:								
		Strongly disagree	Disagree		Neutral		Agree	Strongly agree
1	I buy a certain luxury brand because I know of their environmental consideration							
2	I buy a certain luxury brand because I know of their communal work							
3	I will always choose a luxury brand that has a positive contribution in my country/community							

2. Social Identity

Please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with each statement:								
		Strongly disagree	Disagree		Neutral		Agree	Strongly agree
1	I buy a luxury brand because I want to be noticed by people							
2	I buy a luxury brand because I want to be respected							
3	I buy a luxury brand because I want to be viewed in a certain way							
4	I buy a luxury brand because I want to belong							
5	I buy a luxury brand because of what people say about it							
6	I buy a luxury brand because someone I know and admire has it							

3. Brand Fetish

Please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with each statement:								
		Strongly disagree	Disagree		Neutral		Agree	Strongly agree
1	I have purchased more than one item from my preferred luxury brand							
2	There is no other luxury brand that produces anything better than my preferred luxury brand							
3	Purchasing this luxury brand makes me feel fulfilled							
4	I always have the latest product of my preferred luxury brand							
5	I can never have enough luxury items							
6	I am perceived the way I intended by my peers when they see me with a certain luxury brand							

4. Luxury Brand Purchase Intention

Please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with each statement:								
		Strongly disagree	Disagree		Neutral		Agree	Strongly agree
1	My values and norms are a contributing factor when I intend on purchasing a luxury brand product							
2	My luxury brand product purchase is influenced by what people say about the luxury brand							
3	Purchasing a luxury brand makes me feel very happy							
4	Purchasing a luxury brand makes me feel like I belong to a certain class in my community							
5	People's attitudes towards someone is always positive when a person owns a luxury brand							
6	I have intention of purchasing a luxury brand because of their adverts							

5. Luxury Housing Brand

Please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with each statement:								
		Strongly disagree	Disagree		Neutral		Agree	Strongly agree
1	I buy a luxury brand because of how it makes me feel							
2	I buy a luxury brand because of how it's perceived by my society							
3	I buy a luxury brand because it produces high-quality items							
4	I buy a luxury brand because not a lot of people own it							
5	A luxury brand because it meets all my product desires							

6. Buying Luxury Brands

Please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with each statement:								
		Strongly disagree	Disagree		Neutral		Agree	Strongly agree
1	I buy my own luxury brand because I can afford it							
2	My partner buys me luxury brands							
3	I save up for a long time to buy luxury products							
4	I cannot afford to buy luxury brands but want them							
5	I sacrifice a lot to be able to afford a luxury product							

